

The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXVII, NUMBER 7

NOVEMBER, 1946

The United Nations Must Not Fail

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Ominous clouds of doubt are gathering about the meeting of the United Nations' General Assembly. The weak of heart are challenging the efficacy of the latest creation of man to effect God's promise of peace on earth for men of good will. They would cast it untried upon the ruins of past attempts. However, there are those of greater faith who realize that perfection is attained only by persistence and repetition. To them the League of Nations and other international organizations were not failures but courageous steps in the right direction.

The idea of a world court to which nations might carry their differences for judicial settlement has stirred in men's minds for many centuries. A Frenchman, Pierre Dubois, suggested it in 1305; and Emeric Crucé published a book in 1623 which gave it definition and direction. It was not, however, until the nineteenth century that it became a matter of practical consideration by statesmen and students of international relations.

Simon Bolivar, the South American Liberator, in an effort to prevent further bloodshed among the newly independent nations called a conference at Panama in 1826. This convention was to establish an assembly of representatives of every American nation to serve, "as a council in all great conflicts, as a point of contact in all common dangers, as a faithful interpreter of all public treaties when difficulties arise, and finally, as conciliator of all differences."

This movement for the peaceful settlement of international conflicts soon attracted all the Latin American nations and finally grew to interest the entire hemisphere. Out of this grew the Pan-American Union, the first Conference of which was held at Washington in 1889. Since that date conferences have been held at regular intervals and while the Union has not succeeded in banishing war entirely from the hemisphere, it has certainly lessened the number of conflicts.

The conspicuous success of international arbitration in American affairs, and the success of the Geneva Arbitration between the United States and Great Britain, gave a great impetus to the movement for establishing an international organization. The result was the First Hague Conference of 1899 which provided for the Permanent Court of Arbitration. It was the American delegation that proposed the international tribunal, and in its final report expressed the opinion that the Court was "a thoroughly practical beginning which would produce valuable results from the outset, and would serve as the germ out of which a better and better system will be gradually evolved."

The Court of Arbitration was really not a court at all. It consisted of a panel of names from which tribunals were constituted from time to time as occasions warranted. A single tribunal consisted of one or more, not exceeding five, persons; and each tribunal existed only for that case for which it had been ap-

pointed. The arbitrators did not necessarily render their awards according to law. They sought to settle a dispute, and a compromise was frequently the short cut to a settlement.

At the Second Hague Conference of 1907 the American delegation proposed to carry the Permanent Court of Arbitration further. They had been instructed by President Theodore Roosevelt to work for the development of the Court "into a permanent tribunal composed of judges who are judicial officers and nothing else, who are paid adequate salaries, who have no other occupation, and who will devote their entire time to the trial and decision of international cases by judicial methods and under a sense of judicial responsibility." The Americans were joined in their efforts by the British and German delegations; but they met with very incomplete success. Thus the world came to 1914 with no general machinery for the handling of international disputes except the Permanent Court of Arbitration.

At the end of the war it was taken for granted that some kind of a world organization would be established. It was argued that if so many nations could pool their resources to fight against aggression, it should be possible for them to ally themselves in the common cause of peace. To this end Woodrow Wilson directed the fourteenth point of his peace program,—"A general association of nations must be formed under specific covenants for the purpose of affording guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity." Thus the League of Nations was established to prevent war, to organize peace, to administer certain provisions of the peace treaties of 1919, and to promote international co-operation.

In the last three of these aims the League attained a considerable amount of success. Through its agencies it accomplished much in the prevention and control of disease, the restriction of traffic in opium and other drugs, and improved the conditions of labor in many countries. It notably performed the tasks delegated to it by the peace treaties in supervising the plebiscites in Schleswig, East Prussia and Upper Silesia, investigating the annual reports on the mandated German and Turkish territories, administering the Free City of Danzig and the Saar region, and managing the finances of bankrupt Austria.

In the matter of organizing peace the League accomplished laudable work through the efforts of the Permanent Court of International Justice or the World Court, as it was more commonly known. This judicial institution was grafted in 1920 upon the plan of the Second Hague Conference. It was a continuously functioning bench of fifteen judges, representing systems of law rather than governments, serving terms of nine years and elected by the Assembly and Council of the League. Although the United States was not a member of the League a representative of American law was always included.

The Court was empowered "to hear and determine any dispute of an international character which the parties thereto submit to it" and to "give an advisory opinion upon any dispute or question referred to it by the Council or by the Assembly." The many judgments and opinions handed down by the Court constitute a significant contribution to the development of international law. Numerous disputes were settled, some of which were fraught with dangerous possibilities, thus laying the foundations of a legal procedure for the pacific settlement of international disputes.

In the prevention of war the League encountered its most difficult task. Some success was realized in averting possible wars in the following disputes—the Aland Islands controversy between Sweden and Finland in 1920, the boundary quarrel between Poland and Germany in 1921, the Greek attack upon Bulgaria in 1925, and the Leticia incident involving Peru and Colombia in 1932. However, the prestige of the League waned when, in defiance of it, nation after nation withdrew.

During the years of its existence the League witnessed seventeen of its members quitting for one reason or another—Brazil, because it did not get a permanent seat on the Council; Costa Rica, because it was criticized for failure to pay its dues; Paraguay, because it didn't like the League's attitude toward its war with Bolivia. More important, however, was the disaffection of Japan, Germany, Italy and Russia. The Japanese delegation, headed by Yosuke Matsuka, walked out on February 24, 1933, when the Council condemned the seizure of Manchuria and voted not to recognize Manchukuo. Later that same year, October 18,

Hitler notified the League of the withdrawal of Germany because it would not permit German rearmament. An incident similar to the recent Russian action at the U.N. meeting in New York occurred when on May 12, 1936, the Italian delegation, headed by Pompeo Aloisi, marched out of the meeting at which Haile Selassie was permitted to present charges of Italian aggression in Ethiopia. Finally, the U.S.S.R. refused to attend the meeting of December 13, 1939, because its war with Finland was on the agenda and thus was not present when the League expelled it for this unprovoked attack.

Most of us are well acquainted with the circumstances that contributed to the inability of the League of Nations to cope with the aggression of Japan, Italy and Germany after 1931. In general the fateful years between 1919 and 1939 represented a vacillating attempt of the victorious powers of World War I to make a peaceful transition from nineteenth century nationalism and imperialism to newer and wider forms of international and social life. The great powers professed keen interest in maintaining the peace but none of them, least of all the United States, desired to assist in policing the world. The social and political habits of the leading nations were too deeply ingrained to make the shift to a world concept in time to prevent the advent of depression and the outbreak of another war.

Now, at the end of a second world conflict, we again find the victorious nations organized for the outlawry of war. There are apparent weaknesses in the structure due primarily to the veto power which indicates that some nations are not yet ready to relinquish some of

their national sovereignty to a world federation. To those conversant with the history of the United States it recalls the attempt of several states to develop the theory of nullification. If we are mindful of the long struggle over this question, which was finally settled only by civil war, we should be less hasty in our criticism of the U.N. if it fails to reach perfection.

There seems to be a Nemesis that stalks in the trail of human folly. The ancient Greek city states never learned to live at peace with one another and they were conquered; the guillotine punished the folly of the kings of France; for the unbridled greed of the 1920's we did penance in the unparalleled depression of the 1930's; for our failure to make the League of Nations work we suffered the agonies of World War II. If ever wisdom was needed in human affairs, it is now.

The U.N. offers us a Clearing House, not only for the presentation of the world's troubles, but for concentrating and assimilating the wisdom of the world for the solution of international problems. Only through wise and honest discussion of the differences of opinion regarding the political and economic order can we avoid nationalistic jealousies, misunderstandings and other causes of war. In spite of this we are confronted with an extraordinary confusion of popular opinion, an unusual distrust in proven leaders and established institutions, a veritable Babel of voices urging us on in different directions. We live in one of those periods of history when epoch-making decisions are to be formed. Such an era, to those who live through it, seems more confusing than dramatic. We stand perplexed at the crossroads of destiny—shall it be one world or none.

Horace Mann—Sesquicentennial

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Horace Mann was born on May 4, 1796—150 years ago. There is danger that a great centennial may pass with scant attention. Colonel Francis W. Parker, an educational prophet in his own right, maintained that there was just one natural position for Horace Mann in the

list of the nation's immortals, namely, beside and in the company of Washington and Lincoln. The union was established and preserved against the danger of disunion, but it could not have survived without the spiritual undergirding supplied by the common school.

It is said that each generation must write its own history. Some would add that each generation must write its own code of morality. The value of returning occasionally to the gifts bestowed by our ancestors is well emphasized by Pericles in his tribute to the dead who fell in battle, defending the Athenian fatherland. Pericles raises the deathless question: "What was the road by which we reached our present position?" It is the eternal question, asked by Pericles nearly 2,500 years ago; it was hoary with age long before the golden days of Athens.

Pericles did not try to account for the high quality of Athenian life in terms of courses pursued and points earned. He paid tribute to the ancestors of Athenians and the legacy which they left. He examined the environment, present and past, of Athenians, pointing to the influences which he believed were responsible for the character and achievements of the men of Athens.

We, as Americans, can do no less if we wish to preserve our institutions and survive as a nation. There is a natural instinct manifested in the appetite for biography, which we must turn to as educators in keeping the contributions of our national prophets of the past.

Why is biography so popular as a form of literature? Is it not because the reader feels that for the time being he becomes a fellow traveler with the subject of the biography on the highway of life? Teachers, of all others, should not be guilty of neglecting the virtues of historical mindedness. We should draw frequently from the great fountains of inspiration. For the American teacher no fountain exceeds in potency the bountiful outpouring of the mind and spirit of Horace Mann. Unfortunately the world still waits for a great and vitalizing biography of Horace Mann. Here lies the golden opportunity for someone with heart and mind big enough for the task.

Time and space would not permit within the limits of this brief article to give even an outline of the career of Horace Mann. Furthermore it would be superfluous, since there are few teachers, and still fewer readers of this magazine who are not familiar with the outlines of the life of the great educator. There may be a place, however, for a brief consideration of some of the teachings of Mann in

relation to present day problems.

Some writers have felt called upon to apologize for Mann's "exaggerated belief in the healing power of knowledge." How anyone who has read Mann's twelve epoch-making reports to the Massachusetts Board of Education could hold such an opinion is hard to comprehend. Nowhere does Mann subscribe to a belief in any talismanic power of knowledge itself to elevate mankind. In the final, twelfth report, he pled for "the education of the whole people in a republican government" which, he said, "can never be attained without the consent of the whole people; . . . enlightenment, not coercion, is our resource; . . . the whole mass of mind must be instructed in regard to its comprehension and enduring interests; we cannot drive our people up a dark avenue, even if it be the right one; but we must hang the starry lights of knowledge about it, and show them not only the directness of the course to the goal of prosperity and honor, but the beauty of the way that leads to it."

In emphasizing the *whole mass of mind* Mann was not talking in terms of present day materialism. Moral values in education, as in life, presented the ultimate goal for him.

Horace Mann was forty-one years old when Governor Everett presented to him the tough challenge to become the first secretary of the new Massachusetts Board of Education. This is the same Everett who delivered what was intended to be the *main address* at the dedication of the Gettysburg Cemetery. Following the address by Everett, a plain, harassed man, named Abraham Lincoln, delivered his short but immortal Gettysburg address. Mann was president of the Massachusetts Senate when Governor Everett asked him to take the new office. Mann was a leader in the brilliant company of the Massachusetts bar. He had taken a leading part in formulating the new educational law. Why should anyone have the audacity to ask him to desert a brilliant law practice to perform a thankless job at a penurious salary? But Everett knew that Mann was responsive to "The Higher Law." Mann was not a schoolmaster. True, he had spent two years at his alma mater, Brown University after his graduation teaching Latin and Greek, and doing it with his customary brilliant success. Most observers believed that the new

position would go to John Carter, an able educator.

But the need of the hour was not for a leader versed in educational philosophy and classroom techniques. The call was for a dynamic leader who was willing to spend and be spent in arousing an apathetic public to the crucial demand for an educational program that would train all the citizen body in the responsibilities of freemen in a republic.

The twelve reports of Mann as secretary of the Massachusetts Board were read and treasured throughout the country and throughout the world. The fifth report written in 1841 is devoted to what Mann called the "acquisitiveness" of man—the value of education in terms of bread and butter. He makes plain the fact he considers this level the lowest plain upon which education can be viewed. He hoped, however, that even on the lower plain he might win some friends for the higher purposes, the building of a citizenry competent to be self-governing freemen.

On February 23, 1848, John Quincy Adams, who had served in Congress since retiring from the presidency, collapsed and died at his desk. No one of small stature could be thought of to fill the vacancy in the famous Dedham district. Instinctively eyes turned toward Mann and he was elected practically unopposed.

Nearly a century has passed since Mann laid down the mantle of the secretaryship and entered the halls of Congress. In that century vast changes have swept over the land. About the beginning of that hundred years T. B. Macaulay predicted that America would be overwhelmed by an army of barbarians, not from without her borders but from within her borders. It is quite true that in the last hundred years Anglo-Saxon blood and spirit have ceased to predominate in America. Relatively, the Anglo-saxon race is a vanishing race. In our larger cities not more than five or ten per cent of the population point back to Anglo-Saxon lineage.

The changes in racial makeup and the coming of a complicated industrial life have changed completely the complexion of American life. But these changes have not altered the innate hungers of the human heart which remain the same, whether in the time of Pericles or of the present moment. We have not

outgrown the need of the teachings of Horace Mann. The battle against the caste system and against the public indifference of a hundred years ago has changed to the battle against more insidious foes less easily discerned.

It may be true that we should aim to have "one world." The lack of oneness, however, is not so much geographical as it is ideological. The idea of a freeman's education as conceived in Ancient Greece did not extend to include more than half of the population—one half being in a state of slavery. A freeman's education in America extends to all who have the appetite for it but carries no guarantee to supply the appetite.

The same deep-seated contrast which marked the temper and thought of the Asiatic East in contrast with the Greek or European West persists to the present day. That is why Asiatic Russia cannot understand "the foolish American system." The contrast is not confined to geographical lines. Greece sought to develop the individual freeman to the fullness of his inborn capacity; free to see, free to judge, free to shape the world about him. The Asiatic East felt bound by a system of fate. The life of man was determined from without. Suffrage and referendum could have no part in the system of fatalism.

The Greek idea of a "liberal education," later to be suffused with the Christian ethic, became the ideal of western Europe. But the ideal has never gone unchallenged, even in the home of its friends. The American colonies were peopled by those who fled from feudal restrictions, the caste system, and the suppression of religious freedom. Divine right to rule and absolute government of all brands found supporters in the state-supported universities. Bluntschi set forth his elaborate theory of the organic conception of the state, in which the citizen lost his identity as an individual. The mold for the national philosophy was set before the advent of Adolf Hitler. There was something besides mere political trickery that led Hitler to make an alliance with Soviet Russia. There was fundamental affinity in beliefs.

The political philosophy which dominates a state and its people must, of necessity, set the pattern of education. The liberal education which Horace Mann stood for, laid chief em-

phasis on the development of the personality of the child—the making of a self-governing freeman irrespective of economic consequences. An American citizen who surrenders completely his right of free choice, free speech and free suffrage to a labor union has already entered the portals of totalitarian government. No mess of pottage can ever compensate for selling such a birthright. Roman citizens who clamored for largesses of grain received the gift but lost their moral fibre and ceased to be freemen.

Industrialism with its complex problems brought forth the remark; "Large scale sinning is long distance sinning." The sins were supposed to be perpetrated by the owner-management. Now it turns out that the sinning may also be perpetrated by the labor leader.

Is there an educational cure for industrial strife? Those who return to the counsel of

Horace Mann will answer: "Yes." Mann spoke to a generation which understood his language. Would it not be well for the present generation to take counsel anew? To quote again: "We cannot drive our people up a dark avenue, even if it be the right one; but we must hang the starry lights of knowledge about it, and show them not only the directness of the course to the goal of prosperity and honor, but the beauty of the way that leads to it."

There can be no beauty or honor in preaching class hatred or race hatred. From pulpit and press and school there should flow the cleansing stream of the love of humanity. A beginning might be made in the teacher-training institutions. The quality of instruction in colleges, universities and normal training institutions should be sharply scrutinized to determine what kind of water is pouring forth from the fountain sources.

The Elementary Social Studies Textbook in Intercultural Education

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I

The past few years have witnessed a growing realization among educators and teachers of the need for a more objective and representative portrayal of America's racial, religious, and ethnic minorities in social studies textbooks. This awareness is the result, in part, of the long existent dissatisfaction which minority groups have expressed concerning the treatment which has been accorded to them in "scholarly" works and elementary textbooks. Practically without exception, they have protested against countless sins of commission and omission with regard to their respective roles in American history and culture.¹

In an attempt to right matters, these groups have written their own accounts of what these roles have been. Although such works per-

form the highly important task of filling in the total picture of America's peoples, the weakness common to them all lies in their failure to indicate how all groups have lived and died together in the making of One America. By overstressing the history of individual groups they perpetuate, in effect, the cultural wrong which they seek to redress; of necessity, they must underestimate the parts played by other groups. Clearly, Negro, Catholic, Jewish, German-American histories, etc., fall short of the ideal which would weave these separate strands into one fabric.² (They can be used best, it would seem, as supplementary books).

II

Before minorities can claim their rightful places in such a social studies textbook, however, the prevalent conception of American

¹ B. L. Pierce, *Public Opinion and the Teaching of History in the United States* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1926), pp. 185-298.

² S. Holbrook, "A Study of Some Relationships Between Negro and White Students in New York Public Schools," *High Points*, XXVI (June, 1944), p. 16.

culture as the culture of the old American Anglo-Saxon group will have to be radically revised.

In the main, this view—expressed in the works of Burr, Gould, and McDougall—not only regards Anglo-Saxons as superior to other groups but asserts, further, that American history and culture is essentially the work of the old stock British immigrants. At times it has taken such extreme organizational forms as the Know-Nothing and Ku Klux Klan movements. In its less overtly aggressive moods it has sought to impose its own cultural pattern on American minorities as, for instance, during the Americanization movement during World War I.

It is this Plymouth Rock picture of American civilization that underlies the point of view of the majority of contemporary social studies textbooks. Apart from dutifully considering early Spanish, French, Dutch and other explorations, and the later waves of immigrant groups, American history books contain little or nothing about the real influence of non-Anglo-Saxon groups upon American history and culture.³ They have failed, for example, to emphasize the fact that "Spanish and other cultures are at the base of the history of various regions in the West and South."⁴ On the whole, such textbooks also omit any consideration of Negro progress since Booker T. Washington's time and continue to perpetuate stereotypes of this group.⁵

More recently, interpreters of American culture have come to recognize that this doctrine of Anglo-Saxonism is much akin to the Nazi myth.⁶ Modern anthropology has demolished the Gobineau-Chamberlain-Stoddard school of thought which apotheosized Nordicism and Anglo-Saxonism.⁷ Then, too, historical re-

³T. Carter, "Racial Elements in American History Textbooks," *Historical Outlook*, (April, 1931), pp. 147-156.

⁴F. J. Brown and J. S. Roucek, (Eds.), *One America: Our Racial and National Minorities* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945), p. 627.

⁵M. E. Carpenter, *The Treatment of the Negro in American History School Textbooks, A Comparison of Changing Textbook Content 1826 to 1939, with Developing Scholarship in the History of the Negro in the United States* (Menasha: Wisconsin, George Banta Publishing Company, 1941).

⁶C. F. Ware, (Ed.) *The Cultural Approach to History* (New York: American Historical Association, Columbia University Press, 1940), p. 87.

search has documented the extent of Negro progress since the Civil War and, in conjunction with the findings of psychology and sociology, has dealt the myth of Negro inferiority a fatal blow. Finally, a deepening of the democratic concept to include the ethnic realm has provided us with—to use Adamic's phrase—a "Plymouth Rock and Ellis Island" view of American life.

The one danger to be guarded against in such a debunking of the old stock myth is that it is apt to overreach itself. There is no point in dispelling one myth—that the English did everything—for the purpose of invoking a different one—that the English did nothing.⁸

III

If textbooks are to serve a useful purpose in the growing movement of intercultural education, the atomistic and divisive approach (in effect) of the German-American species of history on the one hand and the "colonial" emphasis in books currently used on the other, will have to be avoided. Only an *integrated* and *balanced* treatment of all groups can meet the cultural and historical needs of our day.

These imperatives require that man's relation to man be raised to the center of instruction in the social studies. Textbooks embodying the dehumanized approach to social facts, past and present, have too often neglected man's motivations, attitudes, and emotional adjustment or lack of it to the *human* environment in favor of governmental structures and processes, political affairs, and military events.⁹

One example of this tendency is the typical portrayal of Lincoln as the Great Emancipator but rarely, if at all, as the man who knew and respected Frederick Douglass, excoriated the nativists of his time, and befriended the Jewish people. Such facts regarding the personal attitudes of the giants of the American tradition could lend a moral weight so sorely lacking to the teaching of our historic democratic documents.

⁷F. H. Hankins, *The Racial Basis of Civilization: A Critique of the Nordic Doctrine* (New York: Alfred Knopf, 1926), pp. 159-253.

⁸M. L. Hansen, *The Immigrant in American History* (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1940), p. 27.

⁹D. Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1938), p. 223.

Whole groups, also, have not fared better at the hands of textbooks writers. The usual story of the Irish in America explains why they came, but fails very frequently to describe the derision and physical violence which greeted them and the miserable conditions under which they had to live. To realize that a change has taken place, that this group is completely accepted in the American community, is to gain hope that some day all groups will find the same acceptance.

The first set of data, then, to be included in an intercultural textbook for the elementary school, is the type which humanizes the historical account and stresses the attitudinal, emotional, and moral element.

In contemporary elementary textbooks little or no mention is made of the intangible but real bond which "brothers under the skin" everywhere in the world share. Yet the future peace of the world depends in part, upon the recognition of this fact. A second group of facts must, therefore, emphasize the continuity of experiences between the peoples of America and the peoples of the world.¹⁰

Recourse will also have to be made to the findings of the humanistic sciences. Anthropology, psychology, and sociology can provide those elementary facts about "race," prejudice, and the influence of the environment so necessary for a realistic understanding not only of America's peoples but of the peoples of the world as well.

Finally, facts regarding the ideals, institutions, and customs of the different religious groups can aid in destroying those false notions and the feeling of strangeness that constitute the source of much prejudice.

To include such sets of data is not to imply that they are primary in modifying attitudes and behavior but rather to recognize that facts are not without influence in the formation of desirable emotional responses. Studies directed toward changing attitudes substantiate this view.¹¹ There can be no doubt that a democratic attitude toward people will be all the

¹⁰ H. E. Wilson, "Intercultural Education and International Relations," in F. J. Brown, and J. S. Roucek, (Eds.) *One America. Our Racial and National Minorities* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945), pp. 578-582.

¹¹ G. Murphy, L. B. Murphy and T. M. Newcomb, *Experimental Social Psychology*. Revised Edition (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1937).

stronger when buttressed by scientific or established fact.

Regarding the method of presenting such data, it is important that the human touch not be lost as it has been in the traditional type of writing. The anecdotal style of the Rugg Social Science Series, and the situational emphasis of the Democracy Series, edited by Cutright and Charters, would seem to be the appropriate approaches for developing this type of material. It is clear, too, that no single volume would suffice to "cover" the sets of facts suggested here. What is needed is a graded series of books extending through the various grades of the elementary school.

IV

During the past three decades the textbook as an educational tool has been subjected to severe adverse criticism. In view of this fact, the proposal to introduce still another series of textbooks must appear, indeed, as a dubious step. However, it should be emphasized that although such strictures were and are well-founded when applied to the barren kind of textbook slavishly followed, there can be no real basis for opposition in the case of textbooks interestingly written and used as "books to be consulted" rather than "books to be learned." Textbooks such as these can surely serve as an important teaching instrument along with the other tools—audio-visual aids, supplementary books, and non-verbal techniques.¹²

How could textbooks embodying the "content" and "form" outlined in the preceding section be used by pupils? What value would they possess for teachers?

Pupils could find in such intercultural textbooks, previews or overviews of the themes they select for study. After other approaches have been utilized, the textbook could be employed in the final stage as a summary of the unit or as a guide in any such summarization. Pupils could also use such books as reference works for information on any problem that might arise during the course of some activity. Then again, such books could serve as the

¹² *Materials of Instruction. Eighth Yearbook, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935), p. 62.

source from which pupils could select problems to be developed into units or projects. They could also provide a common basis for other learning experiences. Briefly annotated bibliographies, suggested activities, and thought-provoking questions could meet individual needs and aid in the execution of projects.¹³

A series of elementary intercultural textbooks would also prove invaluable to teachers. They would literally introduce a goodly number of American teachers to the field of intercultural education, a field unknown even in teacher-training institutions scarcely ten years ago and still absent from most teacher education programs. Textbooks and accompanying teachers' guides could incorporate the best thought in intercultural education distilled from such standard works as *Intercultural Education in American Schools*, by Vickery and Cole and *One America*, by Brown and Roucek. Obviously, teachers aided by such textbooks and teachers' guides written by experts would be in a better position to carry on intercultural activities than without them. With the help of such books teachers could also participate more effectively in the planning of the curriculum.

In view of the fact that the introduction of intercultural textbooks into the elementary school would serve important cultural and educational purposes, it is surprising to find that Vickery and Cole regard the publication of such textbooks as "inadvisable."¹⁴ The reason which they offer is that there exists an extreme variation in community and sectional needs. A general textbook or textbooks could not presumably meet such needs. Such reasoning, however, ignores a number of considerations.

In the first place, there are those facts regarding American history and culture which are of interest and importance to all Ameri-

cans, regardless of whether they happen to be living in California or New York—for example, the roles of majority and minority groups during the wars which America has fought. Second, if children in Chicago are justifiably expected to learn something about the people of Japan, surely they should be required to learn something about the Japanese in California. Third, as Howard E. Wilson has pointed out: "There is a sense in which prejudice is all of one piece." To understand a tense situation in a different section or community is to gain invaluable insight regarding a local situation. And lastly, a broad treatment of all groups in all regions does not preclude the possibility or desirability of studying the local community.

A good textbook in intercultural education could and should provide suggestions for studying the local region or community. Certainly there can be no contradiction between a textbook stressing the national, even international perspectives and the type of community textbook written by the junior high school students in the schools of Springfield, Massachusetts or anywhere else.

V

Viewed broadly, the introduction of intercultural education into the elementary school will depend in no small measure upon whether or not suitable textbooks are available to teachers and pupils. As Buckingham has observed, many new subjects were brought into the curriculum in the past only after suitable textbooks had been prepared for classroom use. Science, for example, entered in this way.

There can be no doubt, furthermore, that intercultural textbooks will need the support of teachers, educators, and boards of education in warding off any attacks which may be made by one group or another against this type of textbook. Any partisan and bigoted pressures will have to be resisted in the light of the best contemporary democratic and educational thought.

¹³ R. R. Buckingham, "The Textbook in Use," *Harvard Educational Review* (March, 1941), pp. 200-201.

¹⁴ W. E. Vickery and S. G. Cole, *Intercultural Education in American Schools* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943), pp. 110-111.

Communication, Education and World Peace

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The role of communication in social understanding is central. Indeed it is the source of all group life; of all civilization and culture. For the ability to communicate with and to learn from one another, coupled with man's greater intelligence, wider interests, and capacity for finer appreciations, is what raises man above the level of the brutes.¹ However intelligent man might be, if he did not have the capacity for speech, he could not share with others in the fellowship of thoughts, sentiments, traditions, customs, the arts, sciences, prophetic inspirations, or carry on even the commonest and most routine activities of every day life in office, shop, or home. More basically, he would have no office, shop, or home; no traditions, arts, or sciences, and no fellowship of thought to share.

Communication and Culture. Without human communication there is nothing but the emotional cries of animals—the chirping of a sparrow, the cooing of a dove, the roar of a lion, or the croaking of a frog. There would be no more culture than can be found in a wild forest in the noises of the night.

Communication and Emotional Cries. It is true that animals communicate with one another; but what they communicate are images of such concrete situations as have not changed for the species in many thousands of years and the emotions that are felt in these situations. They do not and cannot talk as human beings do. They do not live together as human beings do in the fellowship just suggested. They do not acquire symbols which stand for the things and the relations about which men have thoughts, ideals, and ideas.² Man's life, however, is made up of such sub-

stance. As a consequence, when he misunderstands, he fights, and somebody dies. When he understands, man lives and prospers.

Emotional Cries, Misunderstanding, and Conflict. Among the nations and classes there has been great misunderstanding in this century. The whole world fights, with interludes to catch its breath, and multiplied millions die. But the continuation of either the conflict or the misunderstanding is not inevitable. Yet the former will continue as long as the latter prevails. Misunderstanding will prevail just as long as man depends upon making the noises of the jungle for his media of communication.³ To too great an extent, except in science, he depends upon such noises far more than is necessary.

No Universal Medium for Communicating Concepts. As universal as the emotions is the language of emotion in its cruder forms; however much emotional expression may come in for cultural modification and refinement. But, unfortunately, there is no corresponding universal language as a bearer of thoughts and concepts, facts and figures, and a grasp of total situations based on scientifically observable facts. Yet culturally diverse peoples are capable of understanding a snarl or a growl; and they have many pack leaders who keep on showing their teeth and growling. This is what the so-called statesmen at Paris are doing now in the "Peace Conference" as I am writing.

The prevailing world situation is much the same as exists between my daughter's spitz and the family fox terrier. There are many gestures, but so little rational understanding that they cannot be trusted for one moment in

¹ See John Dewey, *Democracy and Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916); Charles A. Ellwood, *Cultural Evolution* (New York: The Century Company, 1927); Leonard T. Hobhouse, *Mind in Evolution* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1901); C. J. Warden, *The Emergence of Culture* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936).

² Clarence M. Case, "Culture as a Distinctive Human Trait," *The American Journal of Sociology*, 32 (1927), 906-920; cf. Hornell Hart and Adele Pantzer, "Have Subhuman Animals Culture?" *The American Journal of Sociology*, 30 (1925), 703-709.

³ Cf. Stuart Chase, *The Tyranny of Words* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1938); S. I. Hayakawa, *Language in Action* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1941), Chap. V.

the same room together. With the most incipient snarl the fur flies. Neither can understand that sharing his universe with the other would multiply it many fold, really, and in the most literal manner. All they have to serve them is the language of emotion. But man does not need to continue in such a state. Obviously he can do so much better that he can ultimately rise to the rational management of international and intercultural relations.

Some Prerequisites to the Rational Management of Intercultural Relations. The rational management of intercultural relations demands that man develop to a much fuller extent certain elements in human media of communication. (1) He must desire to communicate with and to understand the other one, class, group, or nation. (2) He must have a language medium that is understood by all the communicants. (3) The information imparted through the common or universal medium must be accurate and accurately stated. (4) There must be ample sympathetic imagination or dramatic insight in the minds of the interacting peoples, more particularly among their respective leaders. (5) Each one of these elements must be provided through the process of education, which is itself the world's most important channel of communication.

Education and the Desire to Communicate and Understand. The desire to communicate with and understand the other individual, nation, or people is basic to all the rest. The ten years of this century which the nations have spent at war—total war—have been marked by the attempt of publicists in rival nations to create in their respective publics total misunderstandings of their enemies. To make them fight the harder, people must be made to believe that they are grappling with truly demonic forces.⁴ This process must now be reversed if we want peace. To create the desire to understand and to cooperate with other races and nations, there will be necessary a direction of education toward the realization that any people by sharing its universe may, more truly than the terrier and the spitz, multiply it many fold; and also toward the realization that we

can share no part of the world that we do not understand. To face education in that direction is not Utopianism. It is sheer realism.

Education and a Universal Language. The second prerequisite for understanding calls for a medium that is common to all the communicants—a goal that will be difficult to attain without the development and diffusion of a universal language. The New Testament has been reduced to *Basic English*, and the meanings imparted by the scriptures in their conceptual content do not suffer greatly, however much the familiar phrases of the old are not there with their emotional conditionings. As to international and intercultural understandings there needs to be some medium for rational communication shorn of emotional conditionings. Yet the other one must never forget that emotional conditionings are there in the one, and vice versa; and why they are there, he needs to understand.

Perhaps *Basic English* as a medium has for English and non-English speaking people alike an emotional content that would mar it as an acceptable universal medium. In this respect, Esperanto might be better, as it is based upon words common to the chief European languages with sounds peculiar to any one language eliminated. The development of some such language, easily impartable to all, would seem to go hand in hand with the development of a world federation, a world community; but education in a universal language should not preclude the rapid expansion of education in the native tongues; for education in the vernacular is the most natural and the most rapid means of advance toward universal literacy, which is a prime necessity for universal understanding.

Scientific Accuracy of Information. The third condition to world communication and understanding is the accuracy of the information imparted. Scientific accuracy in what is reported and scrupulous reporting are not the cause of misunderstanding. Nebulous rumors that wind themselves into falsehoods of stellar proportions always leave international understandings in eclipse. The same thing is true at home in industrial relations. The school has a particular obligation to become more sensitized to the differences between sheer propaganda and scientifically gathered infor-

⁴ Norman Angell, *The Public Mind* (New York: Dutton and Company, 1927); F. E. Lumley, *The Propaganda Menace* (New York: Appleton-Century Company, 1933); Arthur Ponsonby, *Falsehood in War-Time* (New York: Dutton and Company, 1928).

mation. Not to be wholly devoted to the latter would be the greatest immorality of which any teacher could be capable.

In the world scene no sort of League of Nations will be able to do without scientific research into intergroupal and international relations as the basis for news reports, where such relations are concerned. Surely the freedom of the world's press is unimpeachable as long as it is responsible; but its freedom does not depend upon the spawning of unfounded rumor and the reiteration of international lies. The local and national press, then, can afford to be tried in the court of a body constituted to do international research, whose scientific statement of ascertainable facts would correct any misstatements of the free ethnocentric press. In this manner, the press in every part of the world could remain free, but could retain respect in that degree to which its veracity entitles it. The schools have a special obligation to be independently well enough informed to keep youth from becoming the victims of an ethnocentric press. It is also the schools that educate newspaper men.

Education for Sympathetic Imagination. The fourth condition of world communication and understanding is quite clearly as indispensable as the others. It calls for sympathetic imagination or dramatic insight in the minds of the interacting peoples.⁵ This insight naturally cannot come, however, in a vacuum. It calls for a large amount of information about other cultures, other peoples' history, religion, art, and institutions. This is a very fertile field for visual education.

Building upon such a foundation brings about much more information and the fundamental understandings that are requisite for appreciation and peace. It helps to transcend the weaknesses of the spoken word. For, as A. N. Whitehead says,

No language can be anything more than elliptical, requiring a leap of the imagination

⁵ Charles Horton Cooley, *Human Nature and the Social Order* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1922), pp. 34-35; Charles Horton Cooley, *Social Process* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1918), p. 395; B. Malinowski, *Argonauts of the Western Pacific* (New York: Dutton and Company, 1922), pp. 5, 18-19; Austin L. Porterfield, *Creative Factors in Scientific Research* (Chapel Hill, N. C.: Duke University Press, 1941), pp. 209-211; Willard Waller, "Insight in Scientific Method," *The American Journal of Sociology*, 40 (1934), 285-297.

to understand its meaning in its relevance to immediate experience.⁶

Now if consciousness is immediate experience, and language is not adequate to communicate precisely the mind of the one to the mind of the other, dramatic insight is really necessary. But what is it?

Sympathetic Imagination or Dramatic Insight Defined. Sympathetic imagination or dramatic insight, as Charles Horton Cooley defined it, includes the ability of one person who is interacting with another to re-enact in his imagination, in his own mind, what is thought and felt in the other's mind and, in George H. Mead's words, to "take the role of the other" in such a way as to know not only what he thinks and feels, but how he came naturally enough to have the attitudes and ideas that he has.⁷ It is only in this way that one can come to understand the other, the other's institutions, and his total culture.

Without such understandings we always think of people of other cultures with different sets of values and appreciations, as being much less human than ourselves, much less honest, decent, and respectable; and certainly as being less intelligent. We can understand our fears of them, but we cannot understand their distrust of us. We think we cannot trust Russia, but surely it is only meanness in Russia that makes her fear us with the atomic bomb! Surely other people do not really distrust us when they complain about us. They are only seeking an excuse to attack us. Anybody ought to know that we are honorable and that our intentions are good!

The schools have their job cut out for them in teaching the meaning of and in laying the knowledge foundations for sympathetic imagination. This task requires great stress on social psychology and contemporary world cultures.

Schooling the Minds of Social Leaders. If social knowledge is knowledge that is developed from contact with the minds of others through communication, which arouses in us the same processes of thought and sentiment as are going on in those about us, then peoples must

⁶ Alfred N. Whitehead, *Modes of Thought* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938), pp. 1-58.

⁷ W. W. Waller, *The Family, A Dynamic Interpretation* (New York: Dryden Press, 1938), 48-53.

have reliable and accessible means of contact before they can have any social knowledge. This requires world education conducted by people who know the world's cultures, but know them sympathetically from participation in them, and who know that students from all cultures and races need to be brought together in the same learning situations so that they may really come into contact with one another, and may by such contacts be able to take the role of the other. In this way it is possible more adequately to reach those who are most likely to become leaders. And nothing is more important than the sympathetic understandings and communicative qualities of social, domestic, and international leaders.

The Leader as Communicator. The last proposition is true because the social leader is the man or the woman who can get into the minds of the masses sympathetically, can understand their wishes and strivings, can formulate for them and give expression to their felt needs and their thinking, and can suggest ways in which their felt needs can be reached. He is also the one who can command the foresight to rehearse in his imagination the processes that reach from the *now* of hope to the *future* of realization and communicate to those he leads the picture, and can hold it steadily before them until they carry the process through, or at least try to do so.⁸ Often in the domestic scene he is the demagogue who pretends that he can see the way. Frequently, also, in the international scene, he is a chauvinist, whose ethnocentrism keeps him from understanding the wishes and the strivings, to say nothing of the needs, of any nation but his own. Sometimes, like Napoleon, he knows how to move men but cares nothing for them. Other times, like Woodrow Wilson, he knows and feels their sufferings, but knows little about how to move them, or to elicit their thinking and action realistically in their behalf. Too few are the leaders who, like Abraham Lincoln, felt the sufferings of men everywhere.

When Lincoln died before the Reconstruction Period the results were tragic. His capacity

for dramatic insight was the element needed at a time when public policy fell into the hands of men so utterly devoid of sympathetic imagination as to be completely incapable of putting themselves in the place of the vanquished, of "taking the role of the other."⁹

It is a commonplace that the hatred kindled by war is conducive to inability to take the other's role; and at no time is this inability, which William James called "a certain blindness in human beings," more prevalent than just at the moment that calls for peace. This was the reason for the political ineptitude of the peace-makers not only at the close of the American Civil War but at the making of the Treaty of Versailles, where so many understood the minds of their own people and their own cause but the minds, the motives, and the cause of nobody else. The same blindness and ineptitude prevails in the deliberations following World War II.

Yalta, San Francisco, Potsdam, London, and Paris pass in review. How well have the leaders of the victorious nations been able to communicate to one another what has been and now is in their minds? What has been and is consciously being reserved and imperfectly expressed in international dealings now? How much of the failure of one to communicate with the other is due to lack of dramatic insight in the other? How well do the leaders understand the minds and the needs of their own people? To what extent can the representatives of the victors really understand the vanquished sympathetically and be able to lead their respective victorious nations into such understanding?

In this present post-war period, if we cannot rise above the hate engendered during the war, if we have no leaders to help us to do it, the cause will be hopeless. The same old misunderstandings will prevail in the next generations. Our schools must give us followers of peace—and leaders!

The Challenge of Communication Through Education. The peace of the world in the future depends upon understanding among groups at home and abroad. Understanding can come only through the communication of

⁸ Joseph Lee, in *Human Nature and the Social Order*, pp. 34-35; E. S. Bogardus, *Leaders and Leadership* (New York: Appleton-Century Company, 1934), Chap. XXII; C. M. Case, "Leadership and Conjuncture: A Sociological Hypothesis," *Sociology and Social Research*, 17 (1933), 510-513.

⁹ A. W. Porterfield, "Dramatic Insight in the Social Leader," *Sociology and Social Research*, 24 (1940), 317-325.

minds—through their *intercommunication*. The burden of teaching men how to intercommunicate and of training leaders in the field of human understanding rests with the schools, newspapers, radio, and the churches; certainly, the churches; but leaders in all these fields come up through the schools.

Before we can have understanding, then, teachers on all educational levels must teach living together as a science and as a fine art in all the relations of life; must lead youth consistently and continuously into the serious consideration of these questions:

How much do we want peace? Do we want to understand other people? Do we care badly enough to plan ways of doing so? Can we develop a universal medium or language that will gradually come to be understood? Will it be free from the noises of the jungle? Can we stop snarling at others at home and abroad?

Are we willing to study joint problems jointly with them? Are we intelligent enough to demand that international news reporting be based on dependable research internationally sponsored? Will we be realistic enough and objective enough to demand of ourselves and our leaders that we try earnestly to get the viewpoint of other races, nations, and classes, so that they may be able to communicate to us their true humanity and, in turn, be able to comprehend our own?

Are our schools so much the product of their own times that they cannot begin to ask such questions? If true, world society is already damned. Only time will tell whether we shall develop an era of understanding through learning the arts of communication more adequately, or come up shortly with another generation drenched in its own blood.

Hitler in America to 1930

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No little time must elapse before an authoritative portrait of Adolph Hitler and the history of National Socialism can be prepared. Meantime the most acceptable study available is Konrad Heiden's *Der Fuehrer: Hitler's Rise to Power*,¹ an amplification of an earlier work, which treats, in considerable detail, the man and his movement through the shameless blood purge of 1934.

The troubled atmosphere of post-war Bavaria and of rather nonchalant Munich, in which the Nazi weed sprouted, has been clearly and perceptively depicted by Carl Landauer.² It is his contention, and he buttresses it with solid evidence, that acquaintance with Bavarian affairs on the morrow of World War I is indispensable for an understanding of the emergence and upsurge of National Socialism. Favorable for the nurture of a political propaganda, such as Hitlerism, were a short-lived Bavarian "Red" republic which was Jewish-directed, the economic torments of the time, the traditional

Bavarian cult of states-rights, the formation of military leagues, and the convergence upon Munich of foes of the Weimar democracy, among them Field Marshall Erich Ludendorff, who were personae non gratae in other parts of the German Republic.

It is instructive and enlightening to compare the findings in these scholarly studies of Heiden and Landauer with the information on Hitler and his movement that was spread before American eyes through the medium of the press. Before the sensational Nazi gains in the Reichstag election of September, 1930, even the most assiduous American watcher of the times could scarcely have imagined the dynamism of the "modern Genghis Khan" nor the volcanic character of the cause with which he was identified. Evidence drawn from the American press corroborates the familiar thesis that National Socialism had precious little practical importance before Germany was laid low by the Great Depression.

Late in November, 1922, newspaper headlines in the United States were devoted to the Conservative triumph over Lloyd George at the

¹ (Boston, 1944).

² "The Bavarian Problem in the Weimar Republic, 1918-1923," *Journal of Modern History*, XVI (1944), 93-115, 205-223.

polls; to Lenin's assertion that his "new economic policy" would be only transitory; to a powerful address in New York's Metropolitan Opera House by M. Georges Clemenceau pleading with the New World to appreciate French perplexities and perils; to the resignation from the Senate of Mr. Truman Newberry after charges of electoral corruption; to the weird—and still unravelled—Hall-Mills murder tragedy in New Jersey.

It was precisely at that time that Hitler burst into print in the United States: a capital analysis in the *Times* of the "new popular idol," who had popped up in Bavaria, and his ideas and fanaticisms.³ The correspondent accurately defined Hitlerism as violent anti-Semitism wedded to perfervid and dangerous chauvinism. Economic misery combined with Mussolini's recent success in becoming premier of Italy strengthened the Hitlerian cause and attracted to it some 30,000 followers in Munich alone⁴—extreme radicals, ordinarily apathetic members of the middle class, students, and confirmed believers in monarchy and militarism.

Hitler, himself, was pictured as having exceptional qualities as an organizer and an orator, whose appeals carried special allure because of the man's humble origins and his record in World War I. "He probably does not know himself just what he wants to accomplish," the reporter commented.

Presently, the same observer disclosed that the German "fascisti movement" had taken root in Berlin, where the accent was laid on Pan-Germanism, the abolition of the Treaties of Versailles and St. Germain, the recovery of the lost colonies, warfare upon representative government and the "Jewish materialistic spirit."

The rumor cropped up—and it was to recur—that donations from the United States were financing the Hitlerian propaganda. Henry Ford, it was specifically alleged, was backing Hitler, whose office contained a large portrait of the "flivver king" and a book from his pen. It was charged that Hitler openly boasted of

Ford's cooperation and lauded him as "a great anti-Semite."⁵

Such a linkage seemed not incredible because of the virulent crusade against Jewry, "nasty Orientalism," in Ford's own language, which had been conducted for months in Ford's personal organ, *The Dearborn Independent*, and in inexpensive books which carried reprints of the press articles. The Detroit manufacturer, who had no exalted notion of the value of Clio and her ways (to speak moderately) had fallen for the fabricated and nefarious bunk of "The Protocols of the Wise Men of Zion," which accused Jewry of conspiring to destroy Christian civilization and to establish mastery of the world.⁶ That fiction, formed, of course, a large part of Hitler's very own stock in trade. Like Hitler, Ford's publications assigned the origins of World War I to the malevolent doings of sinister "Jewish international bankers."⁷

True enough, the Ford campaign against Jewry had ceased in January, 1922, yet the propaganda had evidently penetrated to Hitler's lair. A Ford spokesman flatly denied any connection between his chief and Hitler, and in a law-suit brought for accusations that financial aid was coming from America, a Hitlerite testified that "the party has not received a single penny from Ford. . . . No relations exist between Ford and the party." The court ruled in Hitler's favor.⁸ Heiden, however, believes that the American magnate was solicited for help to promote Hitlerism.⁹

It was also said that French gold, furnished either by royalists or agents intent upon fanning the flames of disunity in Germany, was being supplied to the Nazi treasury. Such allegations infuriated Hitler no less than the

⁵ *New York Times*, Dec. 11, 1922; Dec. 20, 1922; Feb. 8, 1923.

⁶ It may be hoped that the searching inquiry into the credibility of the infamous "Protocols" by J. S. Curtiss, *An Appraisal of the Protocols of Zion* (New York, 1942) will convince readers that they are gross and vicious forgeries. Curtiss' study admirably illustrates the service of historical learning in the cause of understanding, tolerance, and truth.

⁷ Though Ford eventually expressed regret for the hysterical outpourings of the *Dearborn Independent*, what must be taken as his considered attitude toward Jewry stood, inexpungable, in the printed record: H. Ford, *My Life and Work* (New York, 1922), pp. 251-252.

⁸ *New York Times*, June 23, 1923; Sept. 5, 1923. Cf. L. Denny "France and the German Counter-Revolution," *Nation*, CXVI (1923), 295-297.

⁹ Konrad Heiden, *Der Fuehrer: Hitler's Rise to Power*, p. 369.

³ *New York Times*, November 21, 1922.

⁴ Landauer holds (p. 108) that at the maximum the Nazis probably never enlisted more than 15,000 members in Munich, or one out of forty in the city's population.

stories of American donations, and he entered suits for libel against the accusers, winning at least one of them.¹⁰

The occupation of the Ruhr Valley in January, 1923 by French and Belgian forces, bent on collecting reparations, and the ruinous runaway inflation that attended it, furnished rich fuel for Nazi demagoguery. "France," cried Hitler, "holds us lower than a Negro state." Huge audiences gathered to hear his fiercely chauvinistic and anti-Jewish diatribes. Recurrent gossip had it that Hitler was plotting to destroy the Weimar democracy, to set up a dictatorship on the Fascist pattern.

For unbridled attacks upon the national government, the Nazi leader was ordered to appear before the federal supreme court in Leipzig. But he ignored the summons. Since the Bavarian authorities neither forced him to appear nor imposed restraints upon his agitation, it was reasonable to conclude that the cabinet in Munich was subservient to the erstwhile paperhanger.¹¹

In time, martial law was ordained in Bavaria, and it was said that Hitler's popularity was rapidly ebbing.

Of the man and his technique an American eye-witness observed: "He is an extraordinary person. . . . His speech was intense and brief; he constantly clenched and unclenched his hands. When I was alone with him for a few moments, he seemed hardly normal; queer eyes, nervous hands and a strange movement of the head. He would not give an interview—said he had no use for Americans."¹²

Nonetheless, Hitler continued to shout for another revolution "to restore Germany's might and greatness. . . . We can save Germany from internal and foreign foes only through blood and sword. We need a revolution, bloodshed and dictatorship."¹³ Yet the German capitulation on reparations, the appointment of Dr.

¹⁰ New York *Times*, Jan. 31, 1923; May 19, 1929; P. Gierasch "The Bavarian Menace to German Unity," *Current History*, XIX (1923), 222.

¹¹ New York *Times*, April 18, 1923; April 29, 1923; May 12, 1923.

¹² L. Denny, "France and the German Counter-Revolution," *Nation*, CXVI (1923), 295-297; this appears to have been the first magazine account in the United States of the "Bavarian Mussolini."

¹³ New York *Times*, Sept. 3, 1923, Sept. 28, 1923, Sept. 29, 1923 (edit.); Landauer (p. 213) describes Bavaria in the summer of 1923 as "a witches' cauldron of conspiracy, terror, and treason. Economically everything was insecure."

Gustav von Kahr, a dull-witted monarchist, as virtual dictator of Bavaria, and the suppression of Nazi meetings appeared to American observers to have checkmated Hitlerism and that decisively. Actually, the Nazi leader was perfecting plans for a local insurrection and then a march to Berlin.

Banner front-page headlines of November 9, 1923 proclaimed the ill-starred rising in Munich, which has passed into history as the "beer-hall" Putsch. Ludendorff, now allied with the thirty-four year old Hitler, was hailed as dictator and the insurgents, it was reported, were moving against Berlin. For the first time, probably, a photograph of Hitler dwarfed by a large representation of Ludendorff was printed in the United States. An eye-witness of the day depicted the leader as "a little man in an old waterproof coat with a revolver at his hip, unshaven and with disordered hair, and so hoarse that he could scarcely speak."

Next morning the suppression of the Munich revolt was revealed along with news of the arrest of the principals after "the craziest farce pulled off in memory." Gratitude was expressed, editorially, that French troops were ready to sweep into Germany, should that be necessary, to put down wild-cat insurgencies.¹⁴

The "separatist leader" himself escaped, but was presently apprehended in the residence of E. F. Hanfstaengl, once a popular athlete at Harvard and subsequently a trader in art objects in New York City. Charged with high treason, Hitler was imprisoned in Landsberg Fortress to the west of Munich, under guard of soldiers believed to be immune to the hypnotic influence that the man radiated. It was reported that he was ill, even that he had committed suicide, though in reality he was enjoying himself, being only a nominal prisoner. Still National Socialism had been officially banned, the cause wholly discredited, and Hitler was regarded as "definitely through as a power."¹⁵

Before a special panel of judges, laymen mostly, the trial of Hitler, Ludendorff and their henchmen proceeded through the month of

¹⁴ New York *Times*, Nov. 9, 10, 12, 1923; cf. F. Goetz, "How Hitler Failed," *Living Age*, CCCXX (1924), 595-599; Carl Landauer, "The Bavarian Problem in the Weimar Republic, 1918-1923," *Journal of Modern History*, XVI (1944), 220-221.

¹⁵ New York *Times*, Nov. 15, 20, 1923; Dec. 27, 1923; Jan. 6, 1924.

March, 1924. The testimony was extensively publicized. Hitler brazenly avowed his intention of overthrowing the Weimar democracy. Drawing on the record of Bismarck and William I, he argued that the Munich insurrection was no more traitorous than their actions. These court harangues enhanced Hitler's prestige. When the verdict was delivered on April 1, it seemed an excellent joke suitable for the date, for the Fascist chief was given the minimum sentence of five years, which might be cancelled after six months of confinement. (Under national law the court might have ordered the expulsion of Hitler, a foreigner, for high treason but, "fanatically pro-Nazi," it neglected to do so.) Actually, he was released on parole in December, having capitalized on his comfortable sojourn in prison by beginning his notorious *Mein Kampf*, of which no inkling appeared in the United States seemingly before 1930.¹⁶ "It is believed," an American journalist wrote, "that he (Hitler) will retire to private life and return to Austria."¹⁷

From that point on, until 1930, printed references in the United States to Hitler and his movement are exceedingly rare—a reflection in fact of the obscurity of the man and the comparative insignificance of his movement in a period when Germans in the mass were benefiting from a florid, tinsel prosperity and when the international situation appeared to be gaining in stability. True, in 1925 a Hitler manifesto calling for the election of Ludendorff as president of the Reich found its way into American print, as did occasional accounts of disorders and riots in industrial communities in which Nazis and Communists were involved.

Reports cropped up that now Mussolini—not American or French finance—was subsidizing National Socialism, though once il Duce had been ridiculed as a hireling of Jewry.¹⁸ Hitler, in fact, was said to have boasted that Mussolini promised to supply him with military equipment, and certainly Hitler guarded against any utterance or move that might antagonize the arrogant dictator in Rome. He

refused, for example, to join in the German clamor against Italy over the maltreatment of the German-speaking minority in the South Tyrol.

It was possible for an American newsman to comment in July, 1927: "As Hitler's following outside of Bavaria has dwindled to almost nothing and his popularity even in his old haunts has been reported fading fast since his release from jail, responsible German papers are not inclined to attach much importance to his alleged doings."¹⁹

Discussing the outcome of the Reichstag election of 1928, which resulted in a victory for the friends of the Weimar regime, the well-known American analyst of European affairs, Frank H. Simonds, merely noted in passing that "the Fascist allies of the Nationalists, the Hittlerites [sic] had shrunk from fourteen to twelve deputies," having polled fewer than 900,000 votes.²⁰ Another respected American observer of European trends and tides wrote an article on German politics that appeared in April, 1929, without so much as a single word on Hitler or National Socialism.

At the second meeting of the Nazi party in Nuremberg in August, 1929, 60,000 followers were reported to be in attendance, or triple the audience at the first gathering two years earlier. Hitler seized the opportunity to extol the virtues of Italian Fascism, and to inveigh acridly against the newly-devised program on reparations—the Young Plan, the issue in fact which enabled him to vault out of provincial unimportance to national prominence. He was said to be living in lavish splendor in an exclusive district of Munich, thanks to funds provided by captains of big German industry.²¹

The year 1930 brought, of course, the sensational turn in the fortunes of the man and of National Socialism. The naming of the Nazi, Dr. Wilhelm Frick, to the post of Minister of the Interior and Education in Thuringia, the first party man to gain so vital a public post, was interpreted as an invitation to the Nazis to indulge in violence without fear of punishment. Still a foreigner, an Austrian, and as

¹⁶ The first volume of *Mein Kampf* came off the press in June, 1925, and was expensive; the second was completed in 1926. Konrad Heiden, *Der Fuehrer: Hitler's Rise to Power*, pp. 283, 291.

¹⁷ New York Times, Feb. 27, 1924; March 2, 19, 22, 28, 1924; April 2, 1924; Dec. 20, 21, 1924.

¹⁸ Konrad Heiden, *Der Fuehrer: Hitler's Rise to Power*, p. 275.

¹⁹ New York Times, July 24, 1927.

²⁰ F. H. Simonds, "Germany Goes Red, White and Gold," *Review of Reviews*, LXXVIII (1928), 33-35; H. K. Norton, "Leaders of the New Germany," *World's Work*, LVIII (1929), 64-69.

²¹ New York Times, Aug. 25, 1929; Nov. 3, 1929.

such subject to deportation at any time, Hitler, it was proposed, might become a German citizen through the good offices of Frick, a participant in the Munich Putsch of 1923.²²

No echo of the militant activity of National Socialism in the plebiscite on the Young reparations plan reached across the Atlantic. Indeed a rather detailed speculation in the *Times* on the Reichstag election of September 14, 1930, wholly ignored National Socialism, though the writer predicted a stiffening of nationalistic sentiments; the article was accompanied by a photograph of Hitler together with other prominent politicians. A companion survey of the German political scene ventured the opinion that the Nazis would double their representation in the Reichstag. Yet the correspondent confidently asserted that "despite the economic difficulties which the Reich is enduring, those who know the German people refuse to believe that at this time they will vote for any radical departure in their government."²³

Such forecasts could hardly have prepared readers for the stark headlines of the morrow: "Fascists Make Big Gains in Germany, Communists also Increase Strength as Moderates

Drop in Reich Election." The spectacular Nazi poll of over 6,000,000 votes and the election of 107 deputies was properly interpreted as "one of the most upsetting developments in German post-war politics . . . to be explained by the adroit manner in which (the party) exploited social and economic privations of the middle classes and such working classes as are not followers of the Socialists or Communists."

"Herr Hitler," the commentator, Guido Enderis a *Times* specialist on Germany, wrote, "also kindled the imagination of millions of young voters by his fiery oratory, while the more mature electorate was fed with anti-Semitic, anti-reparations, and anti-parliament haranguing. Back of it all was the cry for a dictator who would lead Germany out of the slough of despond."

Then followed an article which shrewdly analyzed the nature of National Socialism, the career of Hitler, and the sources of strength of German Fascism.²⁴

Feebly though the American public had hitherto been informed on National Socialism and its menace, after September, 1930, Hitler became the most talked of man in Europe—if not indeed in the world.

²² Ibid., Jan. 19, 1930; July 15, 1930.

²³ Ibid., Sept. 14, 1930.

²⁴ Ibid., Sept. 15, 1930.

A New Approach to the Study of World History

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History teaching in the United States has passed through two phases. In the first, the emphasis was placed on dates. It was thought that dates must be committed to memory in order to know the facts involved. The date was primary and the fact was secondary. Various devices were used so that the pupils would remember the dates. Couplets were invented by the teacher to be repeated in a sing-song fashion in the endeavor to fix them in the minds of pupils. The result was that the average pupil learned to dislike history. He was not stimulated in any way to read history on his own initiative.

The next phase was to teach history as an accumulation of facts. These were set forth as essential material to be known, such as the chronicling of phases of the development of a country. However, they were taught as certain events which took place over the years, which constituted primarily the records of a nation. For example, an administration of a President of the United States was studied on the basis of factual accomplishment as complete within itself. Then a summary was stressed at the conclusion of the study.

Of course, the study and teaching of United States history is more than a knowledge of

dates and facts, important and basic though they are. Given a well organized textbook, and a thoroughly prepared teacher who is cognizant of the subject matter, a pupil will soon grasp the important dates and facts because his teacher knows how to stimulate his interest. Once his interest is challenged he will remember them without the use of artificial devices.

Successful history teaching means problem-solving and the teacher must point the way. When teacher and pupils make historical study a mutual enterprise the best results are obtained. There are definite principles involved in good history teaching which must be carefully followed. The teacher, too, must have a workable philosophy of history.

We do not lack good workable texts in the elementary and secondary schools. They are well organized, factually sound, and written in a vocabulary that children can grasp; the content material can be readily organized into challenging problems. But we have come to the time when we need textbooks which go further in their usefulness.

The type of textbook which is so essentially needed is one which includes primary sources—documents of our historical growth and development. These point the way so that pupils may realize our history is not complete in itself, but has been closely related to world conditions from its inception. These primary sources should show how our nation grew and how we are involved of necessity, in international relations. No nation can live unto itself alone. The children should know much about the documents which have made our history. This plan should begin in the fifth grade. In a text for the elementary school it will be impossible, of course, to include all documents, but important excerpts are essential. For example, pupils read about the Mayflower Compact, but how many know what it really is? How many have ever read it? Here is a document which can be included in a textbook without the least trouble. Other examples could be mentioned. A brief historical resumé explaining the document should be written in language which the child can readily understand. In junior and senior high school textbooks, the documents could be multiplied.

The teacher of world history, must be philosophical in his approach. Factual data, of

course, must not be overlooked, because there are certain facts which every well informed citizen must know and certain dates will be remembered if the factual knowledge is properly organized. However, we must remember that the very core of our history is democracy—its development, growth and application to the society which constitutes our nation. As a result of the recent global war, some peoples are becoming more sensitized by the democratic principle. This principle should become increasingly realistic as peace is more firmly established.

Our philosophy in the teaching of history must be based on the interpretation of American principles, which unfold certain patterns showing how society reacted under certain conditions in the formation of the thirteen colonies until we finally expanded into forty-eight states. Consequently, we need the basic documents to understand these patterns.

In the elementary school the plan can be developed very effectively through the biographical approach. Leaders were responsible for the documents. For example, Thomas Jefferson and the Declaration of Independence are inseparable. The Declaration was largely the product of his mind and pen. The teaching of this important document should be motivated through his leadership.

In the secondary schools these principles should be presented through the problems which were outstanding in the life experience of the people of the time. Hence, pupils will find that these documents are the stepping stones of democracy. Patterns will be furnished for analogous conditions in the life experience of the pupils. Consequently a textbook thus organized will be the means of strengthening our democratic way of life and at the same time helping pupils realize their international responsibility.

December 7, 1941, is a tragic date in American history. It marked the beginning of our part in a great world war conflict in which we proved to be a major factor in bringing complete victory. But it also brought us into new international leadership.

A world charter supported by the United Nations has given new meaning to world affairs. The central theme is democratic philosophy applied in a most realistic sense to the

solution of world problems. It means that democracy is not simply a way of life; it is life. Upon the teacher of world history largely rests the responsibility for having the classes grasp this broadened understanding. In conjunction with an adequate textbook as has been described, the teacher who has a basic philosophy of history may create or produce his own syllabus for his work. A well organized historical library which should be found in any up-to-date junior and senior high school will help meet the requirements.

Certain epochs should be stressed and five major premises may be noted to test whether each is negative or constructive in the evolution of political and societal institutions. The five major premises are (1) representative government; (2) the position of the individual for the decision of freedom; (3) equality before the courts; (4) opportunities for general and special education; (5) freedom of religion.

The epochs are I: Peoples of the Near East and the Middle East—Egyptians, Assyrians, Babylonians, Hittites, Phoenicians and Hebrews. Their contributions to our civilization, art, architecture, science, mathematics, literature, navigation, government, should be stressed. The code of Hammurabi, religion and Sacred Scriptures should be included. The individual was lost under the autocracy which existed in this epoch, except among the Hebrews where more democracy existed, strong belief in monotheism prevailed, and a high type of morality was found.

Epoch II: The Greek world which was established in southern Europe and around the shores of the Mediterranean Sea. The Greeks contributed to world civilization through their architecture, sculpture, literature, organization of city-states, and the expression of democratic ideas in government in which the individual had a large part; they stressed physical training and education. The Greeks were very individualistic and this spirit was expressed in their institutional life.

Epoch III: Rome eventually absorbed Greek culture and made contributions of its own. Roman civilization spread over a large part of southern and western Europe, north Africa and into the Middle East. The contributions of the Romans are shown in their laws and government, engineering work, and spirit of

loyalty; however, militarism became dominant. The early Latin was quite individualistic, but later under autocratic rule his individualism was suppressed.

Epoch IV: With the downfall of Rome, western Europe was divided into smaller areas. There followed the period of feudalism; Moslemism spread over the Near and Middle East, and endeavored to secure permanent foothold in southeastern and western Europe; the Church spread and the Crusades were undertaken. The chief contributions of this period are extension of commerce, and the spreading of new ideas from Moslem countries, as well as the influence of the Christian Church.

Epoch V: The Renaissance; new routes to Far East; the intellectual awakening of western Europe; discovery, exploration and colonization. The contributions of this period resulted in development of western European nations, including the British Isles. New revivals occurred in art, literature, education, government, religion and commerce. As result of long effort and struggle, the Thirteen English Colonies (1607-1732) were well established. Here the foundations of democracy, individual enterprise, freedom of religion and the integrity of the courts were established.

Epoch VI: The United States of America arose directly from the conditions and developments set forth in the latter part of Epoch V. The five major premises are inherently parts of our institutions.

Epoch VII: The Asiatic world—China, India, Japan—and the relation of the western powers to them. China and India represent rich heritages of culture which must be clearly understood in world history. China has made important contributions to civilization through inventions, art, the principles of arbitration and philosophy. India has also made contributions in art and philosophy.

These epochs give the basic foundations for the teacher of world history to make the subject live in the life experience of the pupils.

The time has come when our country must recognize that it is a leader of world affairs. We have not sought to gain this position for the sake of being the leading nation of the world, but world conditions covering a long period of time have brought us into this position. The time is here when we can no

longer avoid or evade this situation. Our vast material resources and our educational, religious, political and social conditions have brought us to the fore. Basic are our ethical and moral obligations which make the people of the world turn to us because they find in us the hope of world civilization. We recognize that we have many shortcomings in our domestic life, but there is no doubt that in the near future we shall solve and adjust these problems. Our strength before the world is that we have not made it a definite part of our international relations to exploit other peoples. The unusual loyalty and support given us by the majority of the Filipinos confirm this.

Our democracy is no longer an experiment. It is a true and tried system of government and living which has withstood great crises and tests; each time it has come out of such conditions stronger than ever.

The teacher of world history may use these basic epochs as an approach to his field in order that pupils may evaluate directly and indirectly the history of our own institutions, and that each may have an intellectual and practical appreciation of our relations to other nations. The major objectives are thus brought home to the pupils who shall be the leaders of the United States tomorrow.

Semantics in the High School

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"Oh Mary, are you asleep?" cries an anxious mother to her procrastinating daughter preparing for school in her bedroom. Naturally there can be only one formally correct answer Mary can give and she must be awake to render that reply. However, no reply can also be an answer if we accept the translation of an old German saying: "No answer is also an answer." If Mary had answered in the negative, she still would have conveyed to her mother the information desired. It can be assumed that any kind of intelligible noise made by the daughter would be sufficient to act as a suitable reply. The meaning of "no" if Mary were prone to have used that word loses its characteristic meaning of negation. Mother "got the point" and that is what counts. A word is merely a sound to which some meaning is attached. The sound itself is merely a physical noise.

Semantics is the study of the meaning of words. The word "no" as used above is merely a sound just like all other words, and its meaning varies constantly, as is the case with all words. Words only have meaning when someone gives them meaning. The accent or spelling of these noises may change, but it is the meaning that we attach to these noises that is of primary concern. The meanings are always being modified though minute the change may be. An illustration of this may be seen by examining the word "collaboration." Several years ago,

this word received a distinctly distasteful connotation when it was used in conjunction with the Vichy French government. Today, members of the United Nations "collaborate" for the purposes of a lasting peace. This change did not come about at once and yet one cannot measure the day by day or even the month by month change that has occurred in the meaning of this word.

Then, too, may be noted the emotional significance attached to this symbol. How will the high school graduates of the last half decade use this word? There are scores of other words which could be placed in this category like appeasement, axis, blackout, black market, Huns, sovereign equality, and others too numerous to mention. The factor of time is then an integral part of semantics. Our own Federal Constitution is an excellent example of this when we compare it to the number of cases handled by the Supreme Court since its creation. The problem takes on added complexity when not only the meaning of the words but the context of the sentences is taken into account.

Also of great importance is the field or environment in which the word is used. "Flexibility" in the science of metallurgy is quite different from the "flexibility" of the classroom. "Discipline" in the military services is different from that observed in a school. The "project" method employed by one teacher may have

little in common with the same method employed by another. Adjectival modification may present it by such expressions as "sales resistance, military resistance, and electrical resistance." All of these are forms of resistance but with definite variations in accordance with the use of each.

Examination of human psychology is also a prime factor to be reckoned with when studying semantics. It is a known fact that the nervous systems of individuals vary in function as well as construction. We can observe the color of "green" but are we all seeing the same color in hue, intensity and shade? Assuming that it is possible for all individuals to observe "green" as it is, it loses all of its value appearing as meaningless sensation, unless the psychological background of the individuals is taken into account. The psychology of emotion which is always present in semantics should never be underrated.

Thus, three major factors in the function of semantics must always be acknowledged, time, environment and human psychology. It is impossible to say anything without having in it some emotional factor, whether it be sorrow, apathy, anger, fear, interest or combinations of these and others the reader may have experienced. Sometimes it may be the emotion that should be expressed. Playwrights are extremely conscious of this when they see one of their creations ineptly performed. The actor may see his lines differently or he may prefer to "read between the lines." Indeed, what is not written can well be of greater significance than the words. The principal of a school would not do well to read the Bible before an assembly in the tone of a "soap-box orator" nor would he give the announcement of the victory of the last football game in the deep intonation of a judge passing the death sentence. The principal wants to evoke a particular response from his students and his choice of words should be as definite as his tone. Each word produces a specific emotional response at a particular time but it should not be forgotten that the whole process is dynamic.

The world is seeking for a definition of the word "aggression." A pupil asks his teacher the meaning of this word. If the teacher were to refer the pupil to the dictionary, he would probably get the following meaning by Webster:

"The first attack, or act of hostility; the first act of injury, or first act leading to a war or controversy." An analysis of the definition will reveal the following, according to Webster's dictionary. The word "attack" is defined as "an onset; first invasion." An "act of hostility" is defined as "the state or quality of being hostile; enmity; opposition; aggression." And now we are running in circles (note the use of the word "aggression" again). The definition of injury is "wrong; acting unjustly; hurt; evil." The definition may satisfy the pupil but the teacher should give the matter deep consideration. Can aggression be defined as an "overt act of wrong?" From the present world situation one can see how inadequate is this definition which has a tendency to run in circles. If we are not permitted to define a word by the use of the same word, by this virtue we should not accept such a definition. Aggression is limited by a "hostile act," but at what point can one consider when this act commences? That is the primary point in question today. From this analysis, dictionary definitions are without doubt subject to time and circumstances but can serve their purpose if not interpreted too broadly.

Generalities are convenient but dangerous. They are convenient because they assume a considerable amount of understanding in everyday intercourse; dangerous because of this very assumption. They are almost mandatory in their use because of their convenience and it is advisable to use them with caution. There are many words that define generalities, such as nationalism, capitalism, society, and collectivism for example. Note that none of these words can be attached to any specific object. They are built up of many complex factors and functions. In short, they are abstract words and on a high level of abstraction. Breaking down one of these words should exhibit this quality and the danger of the employment of generalities.

Society is composed of people, people are subdivided into groups, and groups into individuals. That now appears simple enough because individuals can be seen in their entirety as a complete physical unit, if one is speaking of them in physical terminology. Remember that each of these "units" is different, in many respects.

Taking another generalization, we see that society is composed of classes of people. Classes are composed according to racial groups; each group has characteristics peculiar to itself, and thus its individuals differ from each other. These individuals could be from any race, white, black, yellow or red.

This abstraction could have been broken down into another line perhaps in the stratification of society. If two or more persons examine a particular object and desire to give it a name and agree upon their decision as to its name they are on fairly safe ground. But the higher they go up the level of abstraction the more difficult will be the task because of the many conceptions of the abstraction concerned. Here again, the teacher will do well to avoid high levels of abstractions that can well lead to confusion in the minds of the students, when teaching some difficult phase of the course. Complete avoidance is not advisable because it is only by the development into the higher abstractions that the student can expand his knowledge and use his language to best advantage. Free discussion of these abstractions may serve to uncover new and varied conceptions of words. The roots of arguments are most often found in differences of definition. Hence, much time can be saved by comparing definitions, always keeping in mind the time and circumstances in the use of the word.

Simple though it may appear, words describing concrete objects also present their characteristic difficulties. S. I. Hayakawa offers a classic example of which students of semantics make great use. It is simply cow-1, cow-2, cow-3, . . . cow-1 is not cow-2, cow-2 is not cow-3, and so on.¹ All are cows but each of the numbers serves to indicate that each cow has some aspect or quality about itself that makes it differ from any other. Remember again that this applies to all words and this is the proper place to introduce the importance of stereotypes to the reader.

A stereotype is a word whose meaning is used in a specified manner to produce the desired result. "He's a Communist" is one example of a stereotype, or "All foreigners are ignorant, all professors are absent-minded bookworms" and so on. It does not matter so

much whether it is true or not; it is the meaning that the speaker wishes to give it. The speaker is looking for a desired result. There can be good and bad Communists: some are not quite as "red" as others. Perhaps it is true that many foreigners are ignorant. Who is a foreigner, when and where? What constitutes ignorance? These are definite attempts to classify people into their niches but they don't fit very well because it is a matter of degree.

Often a linkup with some other aspect of an individual is attempted when someone says "My! Isn't he the criminal type! Look at his features!" This recalls the experiment performed in a college during the last decade when a group of students chose J. Edgar Hoover (Chief of the Federal Bureau of Investigation) as having the physiognomy of a criminal from among many others of nondescript faces. It is advisable then, to think over such expressions and to pay particular attention to the word "is" in all of its usage. After all, the man who was a convict should not be forced to expiate in freedom the sentence already completed.

Though semantics belongs primarily in the realm of languages, its constant implications in all spoken fields of human activity necessitates a better knowledge of this new science. The metaphor, simile, hyperbole, alliteration, personification and other oddities of language are but aspects of the whole study. Any good book on English grammar will explain these daily usages that make language so colorful and varied in meaning. All words have a purpose whether it be to fill in the time, impart information, command, request, mislead or present a double meaning as in the pun. The meaning can never be found in the word. It is merely a sound or noise. The meaning of this sound or noise is within each individual. As each individual varies, so does the meaning of the word.

Semantics is also concerned with the relationships of meanings to each other. One person says: "There has been an accident on the street." This would produce one type of reaction on the particular listener. However, if an additional statement were added, like: "If was John, a close friend of yours who was injured," the former meaning definitely would be modified, producing another meaning, which might give evidence to the implications of the

¹ S. I. Hayakawa *Language in Action* (New York: Harcourt Brace and Company, 1941).

unfortunate occurrence. Now the listener may think of all sorts of things with particular emotional meaning connected to these words.

In summary, the following suggestions are offered to assist the reader in practical semantics.

Semantics offers a means in the analysis and understanding of language. It can develop the ability to create, debunk or analyze the oral or literary symbols of others. Curiosity in the meaning of words is a healthy indication toward this end. Think not only in terms of good

and bad but also in degree, time, cause and effect and that these too, are arbitrary in their general application. Avoid high levels of abstraction; don't talk over the heads of others. Know what you want to say or write for a desired effect, and keep in mind how much space is left "between the lines" for various interpretations. Semantics can be of great assistance in language courses because of its universal application. Don't argue, get at the basis of the disagreement which is usually found in the meanings of the words and then work from there.

No Time for Social Studies Frills in the Primary Grades

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"No, I don't teach social studies. I am so busy teaching the necessary work that I have no time for such frills." Thus pronounced a primary teacher with a virtuous feeling of practical common sense. To be sure, reading, writing, and knowledge of numbers are important, but the social studies, taught with the interest of the child in mind, are even more important, because they should be the fundamentals of social living, of living with other people.

PATTERN FOR SOCIAL STUDIES

Most courses of study for primary grades follow a fairly uniform pattern for social studies. They deal with the home, the school, the farm in the first grade, the community in the second grade, with Indians and other primitive peoples, or with local history in the third grade. These topics, if they are taught with the interests and the experiences of the child in mind, are suited to his understanding, but in many cases they are organized in mature subject-matter-to-be-learned fashion with little consideration for the nature of the child and his background of experience.

The little child just entering school is having his world vastly expanded. The many new activities and the enlarged group with which he has contact may cause him to shrink within himself or, more trying to those about him, to

assert himself noisily in order to bolster up his self-confidence. At this stage the social studies comprise all the planning, all the conscious effort the teacher can put forth to help him make the new adjustments happily and without undue emotional and mental strain.

THE TEACHER AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Thus the teacher herself is most important in the teaching of social behavior. She needs to recognize the fact that the child is immature and his school adjustment is a learning situation. She must not expect adult standards of behavior nor blame the child harshly when he does not conform to her standards. She must have faith in his desire to do his best and help him reason out better ways of working with the group when he has difficulty in getting along with them.

This does not mean that there should be much talk about what the child ought to do, but rather that there should be plenty of practice in doing. So the second element in teaching the social studies is a room with various centers of interest and work so varied in type that every child has a chance to share in the activities and to excel in some. The teaching which emphasizes reading ability as the sole measure of success is apt to build in all but a favored few a feeling of inadequacy or a defense of indifference.

Even if the teaching of reading were the main objective in the first grades, social adjustment is a necessary part of the preparation for reading. The child is not ready for the complex task of learning to read until he gains mental poise through feeling socially secure in the group. This group adjustment comes most naturally through working and sharing experiences with others.

Many experiences and activities are necessary to build up a readiness for reading and in every entering group a number of children lack these experiences or have been exposed to them without being affected by them. Actual experience prepares the way for reading and helps in the social adjustment of the child. Children need concrete experiences. They need to see things in action. They need to handle, to plan, to make. In purposeful activity they work with others and learn to share both equipment and the attention of the teacher. They learn to do their part and give the other fellow his turn. They learn to take care of materials and to finish a job by cleaning up and putting things in their proper places. Every activity is a teaching opportunity for the teacher who is alert to the values of the social studies.

In every experience of the day, children should be learning to work as members of a group, to take turns in discussion, to share responsibility and to consider other children. The child who wants to do all the talking is a teaching problem in the social studies. Even more so is the timid little soul who is afraid to say a word. Living in the school room is the prime subject matter of the social studies and it permeates the child's entire day.

Of equal importance with group membership is the development of the child as an individual. If any individual is to make his most effective contribution to the society in which he lives he must have faith in his success as a person. Young children are prone to lack confidence in themselves. The teacher can be an important factor in helping a child build self-confidence. Even if a child's remarks seem irrelevant to the discussion she should give them courteous consideration. Sometimes a question will help him evaluate his ideas. If the experiences of the school are of interest to him his ideas about them are more apt to be coherent and logical.

Some children are inept in handling tools and clumsy in their movements. Psychologists tell us that this very lack of physical coordination is often a symptom of emotional tension. The child who speaks in such an indistinct tone that others cannot understand him lacks confidence in himself. By her attitude toward the child the teacher can help relieve this tension and free him for constructive effort. Find the things the child can do and see that he gets recognition for them. Express confidence in his ability. Even the capable child needs spoken confirmation of success by the teacher. Encourage the development of special abilities. Give attention in school to out of school accomplishments. The more capable the child becomes as an individual the more he has to contribute as a member of the group.

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACH

What about the course of study topics? How should they be presented? Discussion can help to clarify family relationships. It can call to the attention of the child many things he has not realized before. When school first begins, the child needs to get acquainted with the group and to make himself felt as a part of the group.

At this stage a discussion of types of homes has little relation to living even if the adult mind does feel that it is a logical beginning. The psychological approach is from the area of the child's immediate interests. He needs opportunities to talk about the members of his own family, mother, father, brothers and sisters, to learn the interests all the children have in common, to share his experiences with other children, to get acquainted with them and to make friends. Having his name recognized by the teacher and the class, and learning the names of the other children is a beginning in social studies for the first days of school.

When a study of the home is begun it should include the aspects of home life most important to the child. Things remote from his daily living are accepted by him if the teacher presents them but have little influence on his thinking or behavior, and improved social behavior is the primary objective of the social studies. Again, as the essential part of the home is the living that is done in it, so to the child his play, his work, his relationship to the other

members of the family, are the vital elements of his home experience, not the number of rooms or the material of which the house is built.

This early discussion along the lines of the child's experience has other values. As was said before, to be a well-developed social being and to take his place adequately in the group the child must have confidence in his ability to contribute to the group. If topics are familiar to him, he can share in the discussions from the very beginning of his school life. He learns early to be an active participant in his own education.

Because the work of the school touches his own interests, he is more apt to give it his eager attention, to reason intelligently on its problems, and to contribute to its effectiveness. The teacher should be a learner in this situation. The child's interests, his language ability, his reactions in the group are all part of her necessary understanding of him.

ORIENTATION TO LIVING

As another phase of the child's social education it is desirable that he have a well-planned introduction to the school and his responsibilities there. The teaching staff, the school building, the playground, are all part of his new educational environment. He should be oriented to them, not all at once, but gradually as the occasion indicates the need. He should become conscious of his responsibilities at home and at school, not by having them preached at him, but by having a chance to share in the work of the school.

School duties should be graduated to his ability and he should be taught to take part in them just as consistently as he is taught the traditional fundamentals. The report from the school might be introduced by a report from the home on his responsibilities there and his faithfulness in meeting them.

When it comes time to study the farm, the types of farms, crops, and farm machinery are not of vital importance to the six-year-old understanding of farm life. The child at this stage should be helped to see that home cooperation is necessary on the farm. The pleasures and the work of children living in the country are within the range of his understanding.

The principles of purposeful happy work and of sharing with others are in force on the farm, and the city child, as well as the country child, should be helped to see this side of rural life.

Experiences such as gathering eggs, playing in the barn, going for the mail, caring for pets, and attending a country school are nearer the understanding of children than the important-sounding topics sometimes found in courses of study and much better suited to the teaching of cooperation. If the school is in the country the children will of course begin the year with the study of farm life and take living in the city as the second topic. Teaching begins with the child's immediate experience and widens out from there.

LIVING THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Nor need the teaching of the social studies imply that reading, writing, and number understanding are being neglected. Not only are the topics of social living basic fundamentals, but they are the topics found in most first grade readers, stories, and poems. Stories of home life, child experience, and pets abound. The child's daily living is the basic study. Reading is a tool to be used in clarifying and enlarging his understanding of that living.

The materials of all the language arts need application to the life the child is living. Subject matter does not inhere in the language arts as such. Textbooks are used to suggest the skills to be taught and ways of teaching them. Subjects for the practice of these skills come from the work of the school. Listening, speaking, reading, and writing are carried on most effectively when they are based on the living experiences of the children. These activities must be meaningful, and their meaning must come from experience and be applied to experience.

In the second year of school children ordinarily take up the study of the community. Here again no cut-and-dried subject-matter-to-be-learned outline is adequate. The study of the community must begin with the child's near-at-hand experiences. The work which his father does can lead to a consideration of other workers in the community.

Food, clothing, and shelter are concerns of the child's daily life. Which foods will make

children strong and healthy? Why are good food habits important? How and why should food be kept clean? These questions apply to home practices and the eating habits of children. Wearing proper clothing for varying weather conditions, changing into play clothing after school, keeping clothing clean and in order, are as much a part of the study as learning the kinds of cloth and the methods of manufacture. Teaching should begin with the concrete experiences of children and be applied to their daily practices.

In the third grade the study of local history or of people in other lands should be introduced by an examination of the life and place the child knows and proceed by comparison and contrast to more distant times and places. The emphasis should be not so much on the peculiarities as on the fundamental likenesses of people everywhere. Basic desires, use of materials, adaptation to environment, and attempts to attain a good life, in so far as they

touch the experiences of children, are the subjects for emphasis.

SUMMARY OF OUTCOMES

In whatever grade the social studies are taught, the practice of social virtues is of more importance than any fixed body of information. The teacher should give definite consideration to the type of social behavior to be expected of children at different levels of maturity.

She should look for evidence of ability to work in a group, increased self-control, happy self-direction, growth of power of staying with a task and completing it successfully, and willingness to take responsibility and be faithful to it.

These are important matters with which education can and should help the child. They are part of the planning of the teacher and the social adjustment is relatively more important than the reading adjustment.

The Betsy Ross Legend

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Today, in almost any classroom above the primary level, if the teacher were to ask: "Who made the first stars and stripes?" the hands of numerous children—if it were not a "progressive" school—would be thrust into the air, eager to indicate that John, Mary, Jane, or Billie Dee know the answer. And the teacher, turning to one, might say, "Who, Mary?"

"Betsy Ross."

"Does anyone know when she made the flag?"

Again the hands; again an answer, "Some time in late May or early June of 1776."

"How did *she* happen to make the flag, Muriel?"

"George Washington and two other men from Congress came to her house on Arch Street, in Philadelphia, and they had a design for the flag. But Betsy said, 'That six-pointed star don't—'"

"Doesn't Muriel."

"'Doesn't look right. See, I'll show you how to make a five-pointed star with one snip of the scissors.'"

The teacher, basking in the reflected light of her pupils' historical knowledge but aware that James has contributed nothing to the discussion, forsakes the Socratic method and says: "James, why didn't you raise your hand?"

"Betsy Ross didn't make—" James gets no farther. He has convinced the teacher, once and for all, that he is a problem child. On that imaginary classroom exercise, repeated year after year, hangs a tale and arguments.

Prior to March 14, 1870, the day the Betsy Ross story was revealed to the Pennsylvania Historical Society, the flag-making episode and its heroine were a family story; for it never occurred to any of Betsy's daughters, nieces, granddaughters, and others "that there could be any reason for publishing the story." Moreover, since "none of them had any literary

tendency," they believed that the story of the flag would, so said Lloyd Balderston, himself a great-grandson of Betsy Ross, "come out all in good time from the records of the government and the papers of the distinguished men to whom all the facts were known."

Before Betsy Ross died, her grandson, William J. Canby, heard the story from her lips. At the time of her death, 1836, William was eleven. Twenty-one years later, in 1857, his aunt, Clarissa Sidney Wilson, had him write the story "as she so often heard it from her mother," the thrice-married Betsy Ross. William, taking down the story from Aunt Clarissa, did nothing with it for some years. Later, when he began to work the notes into shape, Clarissa Wilson was dead. Evidently interested in the truth of the tale, however, and spurred to do some investigating on his own, William J. Canby "examined all the records of the period to which he had access, in the hope of finding some confirmation of the story." Unsuccessful, Canby, "armed with letters from the offices of the Pennsylvania Historical Society," searched through government records in Washington. There, too, his search was disappointing; he found nothing "beyond the flag resolution of June 14, 1777, already well known." Armed, then, only with affidavits from Betsy Ross Claypoole's descendants, which affidavits Canby used "to fortify the story against cavil," he read to the Society "a paper telling of his fruitless search, and also narrating at some length the story which had come down from his grandmother, whom he well remembered."

"The story," says Balderston, "was inserted by Preble in the second edition of his 'History of the Flag,' and in that way and by various other channels it was widely disseminated." George Henry Preble's second edition of the *Origin and History of the American Flag* was printed in 1880; the first edition was printed in 1872. According to the preface to the first edition as set forth in the new edition, published in 1917, Preble says: "I would express my obligations to Messr. William J. Canby . . . for valuable suggestions and facts . . ." Had Preble not incorporated William J. Canby's material in the first edition would he have acknowledged indebtedness to Canby in that

edition? But if Preble did not use the material in the first edition, then one must consider H. K. W. Wilcox as the earlier national disseminator of the story; for his article appeared in *Harper's New Monthly Magazine* in 1873, seven years before the second edition of the *Origin and History of the American Flag*.

On the other hand, one might ask: Who published Canby's paper containing material, if authenticated, of such historic importance? The answer is: the paper was never published. At the time, March, 1870, the Historical Society of Pennsylvania had no official organ through which it made known the contents of papers read to the Society. The *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, official organ of the Society, was published first in 1877. Moreover, one might ask: what became of Canby's paper? Two answers are found: (1) Balderston says: "This paper is preserved at the library of the Society;" (2) Milo M. Quaife says: "The paper was not published, and the manuscript is not known to be in existence."

Regardless of who first disseminated the material, the popularity of the tale gathered momentum, and by the middle of the 1880's "the legend," says Moss, "was noticed in the school books . . . and has grown by repetition . . ."

In addition, these facts are to be noted: (1) The house where the event is said to have taken place was marked the "Flag House" in 1887. (2) The Betsy Ross Memorial Association, whose objective was to convert the "supposed 'Flag House' into a national shrine," was established in 1898. (3) In 1911, a chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution, "organized by the Ross descendants," marked the House at 239 Arch Street.

Such facts momentarily command the attention. Concerning the "Flag House" and the Betsy Ross Memorial Association, Moss succinctly says:

The *Promoters* took an option on the house and promoted the sale of certificates of 10 cent memberships mostly to school children, G. A. R. Posts and Patriotic Societies. Out of each dime they received five cents, later seven and one-half cents for their expenses and profits. A nation-wide patriotic public-

ity propaganda campaign was begun, resulting in the sale of over two million memberships, many pictures and souvenirs. The American Flag House and Betsy Ross Memorial Association of which the *Promoters* were members, organizers and officers received the resulting small balance of two and one-half cents. It was the intention to deed the house to the U. S. Government after purchase, but the U. S. twice refused to accept it as did the State of Pennsylvania and the City of Philadelphia, many times.¹ Two million memberships at ten cents a membership meant \$200,000.00 with which to purchase membership certificates, bearing the fictional picture of Betsy Ross showing the flag to Washington and the other "Flag Committee" members, and a house costing, so Peleg D. Harrison claimed, \$25,000.00. But whatever the cost, whatever the profit, to the professional promoters, the Betsy Ross Memorial Association, William J. Canby and a host of descendants of Betsy Ross, books on the flag, newspaper stories, magazine articles, speeches—Flag Day and others—the cinema and stage, and countless textbooks must go the credit for popularizing the Betsy Ross story—a story which persists and grows.

What is the evidence, then, which has permitted the Betsy Ross tradition to become so firmly entrenched in the mind of the public? To support the tradition when he revealed it to the Pennsylvania Historical Society, William J. Canby, although he had searched government records carefully, had only the "Flag Resolution" and the affidavits of three persons. The three people, unfortunately, could not attest to having seen Betsy Ross make the flag; they could say only that they had heard her say she had. The three were: Sophia B. Hildebrandt, Betsy's granddaughter, whose affidavit is the first; Margaret Boggs, Betsy's niece, whose is the second; and Rachel Fletcher, Betsy's daughter, whose is the third. Probably realizing that mere statement alone does not satisfy the skeptic and that a notary's seal affirms the truth of the attestant's story—at least for many people—granddaughter Sophia, niece Margaret, and daughter Rachel, with witnesses, notaries, and seals, swore to

the truth of their statements on May 27, 1870; June 3, 1870; and July 31, 1871, respectively.

As had been feared by Canby, skeptics arose and had to be satisfied. Was there no further evidence? There was, but of a doubtful nature. It was to be found in the possibility that the Stars and Stripes existed before 1777. Part of the evidence was based on an ancient proverb—"One seeing is worth a hundred tellings." The Ross descendants turned to the realm of art. Had not Charles Wilson Peale, in 1779, painted the portrait of Washington at the battle of Trenton, December 26-27, 1776? In the picture is the Union Jack not represented with thirteen stars? Of the painting, Titian R. Peale, son of the artist, wrote:

. . . I don't know that I ever heard my father speak of that flag, but the trophies at Washington's feet I know he painted from flags then captured. . . He was always very particular in matters of historic record in his pictures. . . I have no other authority, but feel assured that flag was the flag of our army at the time, 1779. . .²

Although Peale's picture, the son's letter, and an additional picture, Trumbull's sketch of the battle of Princeton, are accepted by the Ross adherents as evidence of the Stars and Stripes, being in existence before the date of the flag resolution; nevertheless, Preble, referring to Titian R. Peale's letter says: "Possibly in 1779;" but of the two works of art, Peale's and Trumbull's, he says, ". . . in December, 1776, or in January, 1777, the stars had no place in our flag." Why does Preble take this attitude toward the evidence? He says: "Painters frequently take a poet's licence, and are not always particular in the accuracy of the accessories of their paintings." Nor is he alone in that opinion. Of paintings as evidence, the *Historical Magazine*, April, 1865, offers the following:

Historical works of art are for the most part regarded by the masses as good authorities, and so they are. But what can be said of the anachronism in Leutze's celebrated painting of Washington crossing the Delaware (25 December 1776)? The artist here conspicuously displays the American flag

¹ Milo Milton Quaife *The Flag of the United States*, p. 184.

² George Henry Preble, *Origin and History of the American Flag*, I, 272.

with the blue field and white stars, although that flag had no existence before the 14th June, 1777. . . . To perpetuate an historical error of the kind nothing worse could have been invented.

Of course, the author, "S. A." was unaware that the family tradition concerning Betsy Ross was to be revealed to the world at a later date; but his statement, although specifically challenging Leutze's historical accuracy, classifies all paintings showing the Stars and Stripes at any historic moment prior to June, 1777, as being historically inaccurate. And James A. Moss, writing in 1941, too, says of the Leutze, Peale, and Trumbull paintings: ". . . they are unhistorical and products of artistic license."

But somewhere outside the realm of art, outside the family circle there must be evidence to support the story. When William J. Canby died in 1890, he was succeeded by his brother, George Canby, who delved into historic records and came forth with magazine articles, but nothing new. Seemingly, however, he was a more convincing and fanciful story teller; for one writer, in the *Review of Reviews* for August, 1893, quotes George Canby as saying:

A record has been discovered and published that in May, 1777, Congress made an order on the Treasury 'to pay Betsy Ross £14. 12s. and 2d. for flags for the fleet in the Delaware River.' This would show that the resolution placed on the Journal of Congress June 14, 1777, was not the birth of the flag by any means.

The quoted material, if quoted correctly, has an air of the familiar about it. Could it be that this "discovered and published" record comes not from the records of the Continental Congress as the reviewer would have George Canby lead us to believe; but from the *Pennsylvania Archives*, Second Series, volume I? Therein one finds:

Minutes of the Navy Board
State Navy Board
May 29, 1777.

. . . An order on William Webb to Elizabeth Ross, for fourteen pounds twelve shillings and two pence, for Making Ships' Colours, etc., put into William Richards' Store, £14 12 2.

If one compares the "discovered and published" record as set forth by Canby with the record whose publication cannot be doubted, he finds that they agree: month for month; year for year; feminine name for feminine name—Canby's source is less formal—pound for pound, etc. Wherein do they differ? There is a vast difference between *Congress making an order on the Treasury* and a *State Navy Board making an order on William Webb*. There is a difference, particularly for purposes of innuendo, between "flags for the fleet in the Delaware River" and "Making Ships' Colours."

If the reviewer quoted Canby correctly, the question arises: Where did Canby find the record? No other investigator of the history of the flag and its makers has discovered or mentioned the "order on the Treasury." Even Lloyd Balderston, who, after George Canby's death in 1907, wrote *The Evolution of the American Flag From Materials Collected by the Late George Canby* (1909), is discreetly silent about the material, as is E. Satterthwaite Parry, also a lineal descendant of Betsy Ross, in his *Betsy Ross, Quaker Rebel* (1930).

It appears, then, that another question is in order. Why, if Canby is quoted correctly, did he alter the wording of the "Minutes of the Navy Board?" Does the answer not lie in this: For popular consumption, the wording "Congress made an order on the Treasury" is much more convincing than is the phrase "an order on William Webb . . .?" Moreover, if one accepts the interpolation, one need not doubt that the colors Betsy Ross made were anything but the nation's colors. For even today, the Canby-theorists face skeptics who interpret the "Minutes of the Navy Board" to mean that Betsy Ross made state, not national, colors which were "put into William Richards' Store . . ." Moreover, if the Canbyites can prove that Betsy Ross made the national colors prior to May 29, 1777, which date precedes the flag resolution of June 14, it appears logical to them to presume, therefore, that she made the national colors at still an earlier date; more specifically, sometime between May 26 and early June, 1776.

William J. Canby, citing Elizabeth Montgomery as his authority, had sought to estab-

lish the use of the Stars and Stripes as early as July, 1776. The evidence must have brought glee to the hearts of the Ross adherents. But the jubilation was to be short-lived. Canby, according to Preble, claimed that a Captain Hugh Montgomery had hoisted the flag on the brig *Nancy*, early in July, 1776, while she was lying in the foreign port of St. Thomas. There "information was received that independence was declared, with a description of the colors adopted." With impeccable logic and devastating proof, Preble, however, pointed out: (1) that the "drawing of Mrs. Ross' flag, in accordance with Mr. Canby's theory," could not have reached the *Nancy* in the West Indies; and (2) that the brig "was blown up on the 29th of June, 1776." Later spokesmen for the Ross story turned elsewhere for their proof.

Truly, the Canby theorists face an arresting array of opposing opinion to their contention that the Stars and Stripes were in use prior to 1777. Among others, one will find George Henry Preble, *Origin and History of the Flag of the United States* (1917); Peleg D. Harrison, *The Stars and Stripes and Other American Flags* (1906); Bryon McCandless, "The Story of the American Flag," *National Geographic Magazine*, vol. XXXII (October, 1917), 286-303; Samuel Abbott, *The Dramatic Story of Old Glory* (1919); and James A. Moss, *The Flag of the United States: Its History and Symbolism* (1941). Indeed, it is this contention on the part of the Ross adherents which led Samuel Abbott to say, "This claim is a distinct drag on the progress of the Betsy Ross legend. . . ."

There are other *drags*, too, to the claims of those who uphold the Ross-Canby story. One needs to turn only to the affidavits of the descendants in order to find them. He will find these points to be the essence of the story:

(1) Betsy Ross had made "with her own hands" the first Stars and Stripes "that ever was made." (2) It was made on the order of a committee including Colonel George Ross and Robert Morris. (3) George Washington, "acting in conference with the committee," called with them at Betsy's house. (4) It was the month of June, 1776, shortly before the Declaration of Independence. (5) Betsy Ross was "previously well acquainted with Washington";

he had "often been in her house on friendly visits, as well as on business." She had embroidered ruffles for his shirt bosoms. (6) She was asked if she could make a flag. She replied she did not know, but could try. (7) She criticized the design of the proposed flag. Among other things she proposed a five-pointed star. (8) George Washington, acting upon her suggestion, altered the design. (9) From a shipping merchant, she obtained "an old ship's color" to see "how the sewing was done." (10) There were other designs made by the committee, but none were approved. (11) Betsy went to work on the flag, finished it, and returned it, "the first Star Spangled Banner that ever was made, to her employers." (12) The specimen flag "was run up to the peak of one of the vessels belonging to one of the committee." (13) The committee, on the same day the flag was finished, "carried the flag into Congress." (14) On the following day, Colonel Ross informed Betsy that the flag had been adopted. (15) Colonel Ross gave her "orders for the purchase of all the materials, and the manufacture of as many flags as she could make."

Before one calls attention to the weaknesses in several of the fifteen points, it should be pointed out that E. Satterthwaite Parry fails to include the affidavit of Rachel Fletcher, the daughter of Betsy Ross, among the affidavits appended to his biography of Betsy Ross. It is this affidavit, summarized immediately above, which gives us the most specific details as to names and dates; as to designs, approvals, and orders; and as to homely details which give the whole story an air of credibility. This affidavit, so Lloyd Balderston claims, was attached to the paper of William J. Canby, which the latter read to the Pennsylvania Historical Society.

Possibly Parry failed to include the affidavit because Rachel Fletcher had claimed to hear Betsy Ross say that she, Betsy Ross, had made ruffles for Washington's shirt bosoms. Parry, on the other hand, says: "It was not the first time, by any means, that she had seen the patriot commander, but probably the very first she had been in his presence." Parry had only to turn to Lloyd Balderston to discover that he willingly admits the point is so weak that it does not merit consideration.

If one, then, focuses his attention on the date of the event, the month of June, 1776, and associates with that the presence of George Washington in Philadelphia at the time; he will find by turning to Jared Sparks, *Life of Washington* (1858), that the biographer justifies the assertion that Washington was in Philadelphia in May and June of 1776.

If, however, one focuses his attention on the committee and the committee members, Colonel Ross and Robert Morris, he will find by turning to Lloyd Balderston that the latter, agreeing with investigators who have searched and searched, admits that "the records of Congress mention no such committee." For that reason, Balderston says, critics claimed the story was false. Balderston, however, fails to mention that at least two critics, George Henry Preble being one of them, call attention to the fact that Colonel George Ross was not a member of Congress at the time. Although Preble does it in an unobtrusive manner, not so the other critic, C. M. Chester; he says, ". . . It happens, moreover, that Colonel Ross, although a member of Congress at a later date, was then in the Pennsylvania legislature." Then this more caustic critic claims that the Pennsylvania legislature "did not authorize the delegates to Congress to discuss the question of separation from the mother country until June 19, 1776." Both Preble and Chester are supported in their contention by the *Dictionary of American Biography*, itself, considered by many, a most reliable source.

If one focuses his attention on any other detail in the affidavit of Rachel Fletcher, he will find by turning to Balderston, or Preble, or Moss, or others that they have added no proof—proof lodged either in authenticated written or printed records of the period or in authenticated flags of the Revolution, which validates any statements in the story or which shows the use of the Stars and Stripes prior to 1777. Indeed, one writer, George G. Varney, writes: "Were one of these early flags, made by Betsy Ross under the direction of Washington, now in existence, it would be worth its weight in gold—staff and all."

CONCLUSIONS

The story of Betsy Ross, being a controversial subject, has numerous ramifications

which, in themselves, are fraught with arguments. One, in studying the subject, must consider, among other bits of evidence, the paintings and sketches of Peale and Trumbull. Therein he must take cognizance of the flags with stars and stripes. Are the flags authentic to the given moment as it has been preserved by the artists? Opinion is divided—not evenly; it favors those who say "no."

Was there a "Flag Committee of Congress?" Investigators searching to prove or disprove the claims of Betsy Ross' descendants are agreed that records of such a committee being appointed, discharging its duties, or recommending any action do not exist. Not even the Flag Resolution of June 14, 1777, can be directly attributed to a Flag Committee. The one shred of evidence favoring the descendants' claims is the fact that George Washington was in Philadelphia during the latter part of May and early June, 1776, at which time the Ross adherents claim Betsy Ross made the flag.

Did Betsy Ross make flags? There is evidence that an Elizabeth Ross was to receive "£14. 12s. 2d., for making ships' colours." Whether the colors were the Stars and Stripes remains a moot question. Could it be proved that they were the national colors, the question of Betsy Ross' making the first Stars and Stripes would still remain in doubt; for this one bit of evidence is dated May 29, 1777, almost a year after the flag is supposed to have been made by Betsy Ross.

Did Betsy Ross partially design and make the first Stars and Stripes? In 1870, ninety-four years after the date her descendants claim she made the flag, and thirty-four years after the death of the so-called maker of the flag; a grandson, William J. Canby, with signed statements of a granddaughter, a niece, and a daughter of Betsy Ross, claimed that Betsy Ross said she had made the first Stars and Stripes. Today, although subsequent family spokesmen have, with subtlety, refined the story, and although many accept the story as being true, the skeptic still remains to be convinced.

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News and Comment

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THE JOB OF BEING A CITIZEN

In the September 21 issue of *The Saturday Evening Post* there was an article by Robert M. Yoder that deserves to be read and discussed in every high school social studies class. It was entitled: "Are You Smart Enough to be a Citizen?" and it should make everyone who reads it — young or grown-up — do some serious thinking. Mr. Yoder's thesis is that the problems which citizens of today are forced to deal with are so vastly more complex than those which faced their grandfathers that there is real danger of democracy breaking down under the strain. Most issues in the past were comparatively simple, and often involved a moral angle where every citizen could feel himself competent to understand and pass judgment. But, as Mr. Yoder says, the area of understanding has been growing progressively smaller, and the number and complexity of public questions much greater. "Even the smart and conscientious citizen, if he doesn't hump himself, faces being disfranchised by ignorance. When most of the big issues are incomprehensible to him, his vote will become as meaningless as a capon's comb."

How many citizens really have the faintest

comprehension of such things as the Bretton Woods Proposals, the problem of the national debt, the political situation in China or Greece and what we should do about it, the cross-currents of free enterprise, planned economy, socialism, and capitalism, or what to do about atomic power? How many citizens, if miraculously given the chance to commit the country to a course on any of these questions, would have even a remote idea of what to do? The number must be appallingly small; to deal competently with such things requires a technical familiarity with science, economics, geography, international finance and law that only a few possess. Moreover, one would have to have an intimate knowledge of the international political scene — the sort of knowledge that comes not from reading but only from first-hand experience. Without all this equipment it is almost impossible to grasp even the full picture of the problems facing us. How simple by comparison such questions as the extension of slavery, the independence of Cuba, or even the free coinage of silver would seem today!

Yes, nearly all of us are unfitted to determine the nation's proper policy on any of the

great current issues, yet if our votes are not to be quite meaningless, we have to cast them as though we *were* making the fateful decision, not on just one but on *all* of these baffling problems. We are called upon to have an opinion on a variety of the most technical and important matters, in which most of us have no real interest at all. We know that we should be vitally concerned with the civil war in China, the situation in the Balkans, and the terms of the peace treaties; yet we have practically no interest in them because we realize we know nothing about them, and have to accept someone else's opinions. On most of the problems facing this country the citizen has abdicated his right of decision through sheer ignorance, and is reduced to choosing between one set of personalities or another and hoping for the best.

A considerable number of Americans are by nature stupid, self-centered and incompetent to form an opinion on anything more involved than the probable winner of the third race. The remainder, no matter how conscientious and well-meaning, are getting farther and farther behind the course of events. In Mr. Yoder's words: "We are sand-lot citizens in big-league times." The only hope for the future is a citizenry that will buckle down to hard study and thought about a lot of very dull and abstract problems. "Events make it easier to be a dope today than ever in history; just maintaining mediocrity will call for superior work." If democracy is not to become a mere shibboleth, all our forces of education — the press, the school, and government itself — are going to have to do a tremendous job of making people think about things they want to ignore. There will always be someone willing to do our thinking for us, of course — but at a price. The price will be rather high — our birthright as American citizens.

TEACHERS AND THE PUBLIC

It has been a truism that teachers have always been ineffective in selling themselves to the public. They have suffered in comparative silence from low pay, undignified personal restrictions, and poor working conditions. Their protests have usually been made only to each other, and have received little serious attention from laymen. There are some real bits of evidence lately, however, that a new and

better day may be dawning for the profession. One of the most significant is the very real and continuing teacher shortage. Not only are there far too few competent teachers for present needs, but the discrepancy is certain to get worse for a number of years. The sharp increase in births during the past five years or so is just beginning to become apparent in school enrollments; while the number of prospective teachers in training is far below the average of pre-war years. The old laws of supply and demand will have to go to work for teachers very soon, as they always have for others.

There are other evidences that the teaching profession is being viewed with more concern in a world where power counts. The September 16 issue of *Life* devoted its editorial page to a sound and frank admission that teachers must be given better conditions and pay, or the situation will soon get completely out of hand. The backing of such a source is important, for it reaches a class of people who have usually been opposed to increases in tax expenditure for such purposes. *Life's* editorial is an admission that things are going to be done, because there is no other way. The recent strikes of teachers in Norwalk, Connecticut, and elsewhere are other cases in point.

Teacher groups have always been either too proud or too timid to resort to the power methods which every other economic group uses. Certainly strikes are undesirable, especially when conducted in the irresponsible fashion of many union leaders; they are particularly undesirable for people engaged in teaching children. Nevertheless it may be necessary for teachers to use power methods in some places, until the point is driven home that while today nearly any good teacher can command more money in some other occupation, most teachers really like teaching. There is no reason why they should be forced from it by the stubborn refusal of public officials to face realities. Since the strike has been sanctified as a proper and necessary means of negotiation in the American economy, teachers need have no further reluctance to use it as a last resort. Perhaps it will save many good teachers from becoming business men or office workers.

It is noteworthy that the NEA-sponsored National Emergency Conference on Teacher Preparation and Supply, held at Lake Chatau-

qua in June, included among its recommendations one to the effect that the organized profession should set up standards for certification and the requirements and methods of procedure in selecting teachers. It is surely time that the teaching profession gained the same participation in determining the quality of its membership as do the legal and medical professions. Present standards of certification and selection are too low in many places, and it is particularly important that the present practice of hiring sub-standard "emergency" teachers to meet the shortage should not be allowed to acquire any permanency. The effect on education is extremely harmful, and the emergency could become a standard condition unless the profession acts to prevent it.

The problem of teacher shortages received a good analysis in an article by Benjamin W. Frazier in *School Life* for June, reprinted in the September issue of *High Points*. He called attention to the large number of non-certified teachers now employed, which the Office of Education estimated to be over 108,000 in 1945-1946. This was an increase of 38 per cent over the previous year, and approximately equals the total number of new teachers who normally enter the schools each year. This is especially startling for a school year which began after the cessation of war, and emphasizes the fact that the over-supply of trained teachers which had customarily existed prior to 1941 is not likely to be seen again for some years.

Mr. Frazier also called attention to the hodge-podge of certification requirements throughout the country; the basis for a permanent teaching certificate is different in each state, and the use of emergency certificates accentuates the illogic of the situation. Teachers in the same school may now possess the widest possible range of professional qualifications. This is detrimental to good educational outcomes and to professional morale; it is to be hoped that the NEA will carry on a vigorous program to standardize teaching certification at a high level over the country.

Two interesting items in popular periodicals deserve a word of comment. The startling advertisement reprinted by *Harper's* from a Loudoun (Va.) County newspaper (referred to last month) had its sequel and explanation

in the September *Harper's*. It contained a letter from the newspaper editor to the effect that the advertisement *was* a hoax, intended to wake up the local taxpayers. The editor admitted, however, that there are a lot of people who really do think along the lines expressed in the advertisement.

The other item appeared in *Readers Digest* for July. The *Digest* about a year ago brought out an article similar in tenor to the *Life* editorial referred to above, and thereby won considerable applause from school people. But the recent article by O. K. Armstrong entitled "How You Can Get Greater Value From Fewer Tax Dollars" has produced a rather different reaction. It was a panegyric on the Omaha Taxpayers Association and its head man, Walter L. Pierpoint. It explained how through their efforts, Omaha had achieved a very low tax rate while still having "outstanding schools," splendid streets and parks, efficient and well-paid fire and police forces, and many other civic benefits.

Evidently all these blessings are not equally apparent to all Omaha citizens, for the other side of the picture was set forth in the September *NEA Journal* by Gunnar Horn, head of a high school English department in Omaha. Mr. Horn explained that citizens of Omaha hardly recognized their city from the *Digest* description. The poor condition of Omaha parks and streets is a local byword, he said. Teachers pointed out that Mr. Pierpoint, far from improving school conditions, had fought every attempt to raise school salaries, which are below average for cities of Omaha's size; contracts for 1946-1947 guarantee only thirty weeks of teaching in case funds run out. A check of the list of directors of the Taxpayers' Association revealed a number deceased and others no longer connected with it; no directors' meeting had been held for ten years. Mr. Pierpoint's real backers appeared to prefer remaining anonymous. If these charges are sound, the *Digest* must be losing some face in Omaha.

MAKING A PLANNED ECONOMY WORK

There can be few Americans who are not dissatisfied with the economic situation. Even those who are making large profits from it must realize that conditions are too maladjusted to remain static very long; they must

get much better or they will get much worse. The average person is troubled by a variety of things, but in particular by two: the extent to which the government has during the past few years taken over the direct control of much of our economic life, and the fact that even a year after the end of the war, our economy is unable to provide the usual consumer goods which we have always had and which we know *can* be produced. The two matters are of course very closely related; many persons feel that the first is the principal cause of the second. On the other hand, other people believe that a controlled capitalist economy is the only permanent cure for the economic ills that have long beset us.

The economic possibilities can be oversimplified into three types. At one end is simple pure socialism with government as the ultimate producer and distributor. At the other extreme lies the pre-Depression system of "free enterprise," with the government's function limited to that of policeman to see that dishonest methods are not used. Between these there is some as yet undetermined combination of the other two. It is this last that we have been exploring for some years, without yet finding the right techniques that will make it work, or indeed convincing ourselves that it will work.

Stanley J. Goodman in an article called "Make It Pay" in *Harper's* for September made an excellent analysis of the reasons why government control under OPA and WPB has not been signally successful in promoting a healthy economy. He pointed out that the basic error was the attempt to control prices without controlling production. The government did not want to interfere with established trade practices, such as the right of a manufacturer to make any type or grade of article that he wished. As a result, manufacturers naturally turned chiefly to higher priced goods which commanded a higher margin of profit. Price ceilings existed on the low-priced goods, but they meant nothing, for they were generally unobtainable.

Mr. Goodman draws the conclusion that "the only effective way to make industry produce certain items and behave in required ways is to make such production and such behavior more profitable than others." In other words,

if there is to be a workable system of controlled capitalism, the controllers must make use of the profit incentive. "The inescapable fact is that no amount of policing can overcome the gravitational pull of profits in the American economy." Any program which tries to make free capital operate in an unprofitable manner is doomed to failure. Mr. Goodman's article explains how the fallacy applied to the cotton textile industry as an example; it helps make clear the whole problem of consumer goods shortages.

NOTES

Volume 42 (1944-45) of the *Annual Proceedings* of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies was published this fall, some months late because of printing delays. It is entitled "Significant Curriculum Developments in the Social Studies," and is edited by George I. Oeste. It continues the study of social studies programs previously begun by the Middle States Council. There are about a dozen articles, some dealing with general curriculum developments and others with programs being used in particular school systems. Harry Bard, now president of the Middle States Council, describes the revision of the Baltimore secondary school curriculum in social studies. Its outstanding feature is a two-year course in world history beginning in Grade 9 and concluding in Grade 10 or 11, at the pupil's option. The 12th year offers United States history in a world setting, thus capitalizing on the background provided in the earlier years. The more significant phases of Latin American and Far Eastern history are included in World History II.

One of the most useful articles is that giving a detailed unit outline of the two-year United States History and government course recently introduced in the secondary schools of Philadelphia. The list of units for each term, and an outline of each unit are given, and should be of interest to any school system using such a course.

Other articles discuss social studies programs in rural New Jersey and in the elementary schools of Washington, D. C., and Baltimore. Of particular interest to schools introducing courses on Latin America and Asia will be the articles on such programs by W. Harry Snyder and Ethel E. Ewing. There

are two discussions of intercultural education in the elementary school, and an excellent article by Clara Braymer of Trenton (N. J.) Central High School on teaching American History to slow learners. Copies of Volume 42 cost one dollar and may be ordered from George I. Oeste, Olney High School, Philadelphia 20.

Another very valuable aid to schools and teachers concerned with introducing Far Eastern history into the curriculum is a list of reference materials in *School Life* for July. Prepared by C. O. Arndt, it is thoroughly useful and practical. It includes books, pamphlets, maps, study guides, pictures, films and recordings, and covers both elementary and secondary levels. Each major area of the Far East, including the USSR, is treated, and every item is briefly described and evaluated.

Fremont P. Wirth of the George Peabody College for Teachers contributed a good article on history for liberal arts colleges to the June issue of the *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*. As the author of very successful high school history texts, he is qualified to talk about what should be taught in general education history courses; in this article he gives nine rules for such courses on the college level.

School and Society has begun a monthly feature entitled "Educational Literature Review," which is conducted by Dr. William W. Brickman, former editor of *Education Abstracts*. Each month's column discusses the literature of some particular phase of education.

On October 7 the National Geographic Society issued the first of its weekly *School Bulletins* for 1946-1947. Teachers who have not been familiar with these excellent little pamphlets will find them useful and popular in the classroom library. Each contains four or five short descriptive articles, which are limited to

one page and thus can easily be separated and filed by subject. Illustrations and maps are of the same high quality found in the *Geographic*. The twenty-five cent subscription price covers the thirty issues for one school year.

For brief but world-wide information about educational developments, an excellent and authoritative source is the *Bulletin* of the International Bureau of Education. It is published quarterly. The most significant news of education in each country is treated in a series of topical paragraphs that summarize the subject. In the issue for the first quarter of 1946, for example, the United States received three subject paragraphs; one described the G. I. Bill of Rights, the second the special opportunities being created for veterans' education, and the third dealt with New York State's five-year study of the adjustment of rural secondary schools to pupil needs. Developments of interest in thirty other nations each received an excellent brief summary. A unique and particularly valuable feature for this type of bulletin is used: each paragraph in addition to the national and topical heading bears a Dewey Decimal classification number, making filing, indexing and reference very easy. The *Bulletin* also contains a descriptive bibliography of recent books in the educational field. The *Bulletin* is published by the International Bureau of Education, Geneva, Switzerland, at five Swiss francs a year.

Veterans and those concerned with counseling them should be interested in a summary of facts about veterans' rights which was published in *The New Republic* for August 26. The complexity of practically any subject involving government activity makes any attempt to condense and simplify welcome to busy people.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

*Edited by IRA KREIDER
Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania*

Problems of Men. By John Dewey. New York: Philosophical Library, 1946. Pp. 424. \$5.00.

Except for the twenty-page introduction,

this volume consists of reprints from journal articles by Professor Dewey, all but one of them published since 1935. Although the book lacks something of the coherence it would have

if it had been worked out as a unified book, the articles which make up the chapters have been very well selected and fit together into a plan much better than would be expected in a synthetic volume. Bringing these articles together in this manner has been an excellent service, because they would not otherwise be readily accessible.

Besides the Introduction, which deals in a very stimulating way with the kind of service philosophy can render in the present-day world, the volume has its chapters grouped into four parts: I. Democracy and Education; II. Human Nature and Scholarship; III. Value and Thought; IV. About Thinkers.

Written during the latest ten years of the life of a great productive scholar now nearing eighty-seven years of age, these chapters re-express the results of the life-long thinking of the author, and focus that thinking on contemporary problems of our society. For readers who are acquainted with Professor Dewey's philosophy they contain little that is fundamentally new; but still there is a freshness and a vigor in the expression of this philosophy that is stimulating and thought-provoking to old readers as well as new. This reviewer wanted to copy from the book some passages to send as a bulletin to a group of teachers experimenting with "experience-centered" methods of teaching social sciences but found he would need to copy practically the whole of Part I, so pertinent and worth while did all of its passages seem to be.

In the short space that can be allowed for this review it is impossible to summarize the points of view, because of their wide and fundamental ramifications. But two quotations may give the key to Professor Dewey's thought as developed in this book. The first expresses a central note in his philosophy of education (pp. 47-49):

The very idea of democracy, the meaning of democracy, must be continually explored afresh; it has to be constantly discovered, and rediscovered, remade and reorganized; while the political and economic and social institutions in which it is embodied have to be remade and reorganized to meet the changes that are going on in the development of new needs on the part of human beings

and new resources for satisfying these needs. . . .

Only as the schools provide an understanding of the movement and direction of social forces and an understanding of social needs and of the resources that may be used to satisfy them, will they meet the challenge of democracy. I use the word "understanding" rather than knowledge because, unfortunately, knowledge to so many people means "information." Information is knowledge about things, and there is no guarantee in any amount of "knowledge about things" that understanding — the spring of intelligent action — will follow from it. Knowledge about things is static. There is no guarantee in any amount of information, even if skillfully conveyed, that an intelligent attitude of mind will be formed. Indeed, whatever attitude it may form is very largely left as a matter of chance, and mostly of the conditions, circumstances, contacts, intercourses and pressures that are brought to bear on the individual outside the school.

The second quotation, from the chapter on "The Future of Liberalism" (p. 138), will show the fearless temper of this octogenarian:

It follows, finally, that there is no opposition in principle between liberalism as social philosophy and radicalism in action, if by radicalism is signified the adoption of policies that bring about drastic instead of piecemeal social changes. It is all a question of what kind of procedures the intelligent study of changing conditions discloses. These changes have been so tremendous in the last century, yes, in the last forty years, that it looks to me as if radical methods were now necessary. But all that the argument here requires is recognition of the fact that there is nothing in the nature of liberalism that makes it a milk-water doctrine, committed to compromise and minor "reforms." It is worth noting that the earlier liberals were regarded in their day as subversive radicals.

CHARLES PETERS

Pennsylvania State College
State College, Pennsylvania
Diplomat in Carpet Slippers — Abraham Lincoln Deals with Foreign Affairs. By Jay Monaghan. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1945. Pp. 505. \$4.00.

A House Dividing, Lincoln As President Elect.

By William E. Baringer. Springfield, Illinois: The Abraham Lincoln Association, 1945. Pp. 356. \$4.00.

During the past year or so we have been fortunate in the number of really significant books about Abraham Lincoln which have appeared. Among others, these two volumes are especially valuable for history teachers.

Mr. Monaghan has been known for his scholarly research and writing. *Diplomat in Carpet Slippers* is not only scholarly, but it contains sparkling, brilliant description. Incidents and personalities are brought to life in a manner far superior to the author's previous writing.

It is the thesis of this book that Abraham Lincoln's was the guiding hand behind our foreign policy during the Civil War. If, in the pursuance of this theme, Mr. Monaghan is sometimes a little less than fair to the ability and loyalty of Seward, it is no more than should be expected. This is the first time that a competent scholar has devoted an entire study to Lincoln's foreign policy. Teachers will need to study Mr. Monaghan's thesis; students will find much of this book very fascinating.

Dr. Baringer is the Director of the Abraham Lincoln Association, and one of the most promising young Lincoln scholars. *A House Dividing* is a study of Abraham Lincoln during the four months which followed his election and preceded his inauguration. It is scholarly, objective, and competent. It is not the author's fault that his Lincoln has not yet achieved greatness, and that his book is of a consequently slighter stature.

This volume reveals a politician bent on reconciling the diverse elements within his own party, and in selecting his own cabinet. Readers may well wonder what would have been the result if that same effort had gone into the problem of preventing civil war. This is a book for the teacher, and perhaps for the superior and interested student, but not for general class use.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

New York City

Alexander Hamilton. By Nathan Schachner. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1946. Pp. 488. \$4.00.

The author, a novelist and historian, has produced a readable, well-documented biography that hews pretty closely to the generally accepted ideas about Hamilton and his career. He is represented as the dashing young officer on Washington's staff who is chafing to wield the sword instead of the pen. He has a brilliant mind, he writes rapidly and easily, and he acts with decision. After the war, the young lawyer, with the prestige of marriage in the Schuyler family, is active in public affairs. He is the conservative lawyer who fights for a strong national government with the propertied class at the controls. As the first Secretary of the Treasury he made those masterful financial reports, has little patience with the other Federalist leaders, and created antagonisms that finally brought him to the ground, felled by a dueler's bullet.

It seems that Hamilton's biographer at times inflates the importance of Hamilton's influence. Yet his weaknesses as well as his powers are mentioned. Without a doubt his contributions were outstanding.

The biographer pictures Hamilton as a lady's man and tells of the private scandals but makes no attempt to exploit the amours for popular reader appeal. Rather, the reader is impressed by Hamilton's devotion to his family and the affectionate love of his wife, Betsy.

The biography can profitably be used for reading in school and college classes in American history.

The Future in Perspective. By Sigmund Neumann. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1946. Pp. ix, 406. \$3.50.

Sigmund Neumann's history of events at home and abroad since 1914, in what he terms the second thirty years war, is, in this reviewer's opinion, a successful attempt to clarify the causes of war and chart the way to permanent peace. Unless we can control social and economic unrest we are certain to have a third world war. "The people's peace depends not only on the international and national acceptance of responsibility, but above all on a personal anchorage in every citizen of the world."

"Nationalism was the first cause of world conflict." As long as there was opportunity for expansion and imperialism, domestic unrest could be diverted into international channels.

When there were no more "places in the sun," national states and the capitalistic order were endangered. The end of the second world war marked "the passing of the European Age." Now predominant are the British Empire, the United States, and the Soviet Union.

With no "supranational order" at the turn of the twentieth century — only "international anarchy" — war was inevitable. Nationalism was so entrenched that even the horrors of the first world war could not uproot it. The League of Nations failed to achieve world peace and nationalism, with its theory of racial superiority, led to another bloody fiasco.

World War II brought home some lessons not learned from the first. The United States renounced its policy of isolation. Peace conferences emphasized world unity and individual rights rather than national ambition. But even now suspicion and greed may prevent the granting of power to enforce peace to a world organization.

Along with a step by step analysis of underlying developments responsible for the war, Dr. Neumann presents character sketches of national leaders. These sketches are enhanced by drawings by Derso, world-famous caricaturist. Emphasized is the fact that though heads of nations appear to be responsible for recent disasters, they are only the outward manifestations of hidden social, economic, and political evils. On the other hand, "Human values can be fully restored only by putting responsibility back where it belongs: on the individual conscience." Thus the Nuremberg trials were to "establish international law, and to apply the discipline of law to national leaders who, in utter disregard of basic human rights, had used their power of state to attack the foundations of world peace."

The author closes with a note of warning. The big conflict ahead is between the United States and the Soviet Union. It would be "bad judgment" to minimize the difficulties of Russo-American relations which are essentially three. First, "the traditional backlog of more than a quarter-century that left the air thick with mutual distrust against the 'Communist world revolution' on the one side, and against 'capitalistic intervention' on the other." Second, "ideological divergencies"—conflicting concepts of phrases such as, "free choice in elections,"

"unrestrained public opinion," and "a large measure of competition." But these differences need not be barriers to good relations. "Understanding will grow with a practice of cooperation. Cooperation will become an international habit. The meeting of men will prepare the meeting of minds."

"The Future in Perspective is highly concentrated, yet readable. It is especially recommended for those who have studied one or more phases of twentieth century history in detail and desire a brief nontechnical presentation of the whole story as well as an expert's interpretation of facts and prediction for the future.

MILDRED BAIR LISSFELT

Abington, Pennsylvania

Central-Eastern Europe: Crucible of World Wars. By Joseph S. Roucek and Associates. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1946. Pp. ix, 679. \$5.00.

The purpose of this volume is to provide the history and problems of central-eastern Europe. As stated in the preface, this "region is 'terra incognita' to most Anglo-Saxons." One cause of this indifference is "the concepts of 'Western Civilization' and the related tendencies rooted in German scholarship." It is a question in this reviewer's mind the amount of blame that should be placed on German scholars and later propagandists. Throughout the book it is made clear that the influences from differences in peoples, cultures, isolation, and unsettled political life have been barriers to western understanding of eastern Europe. This is an admirable book and fills a big gap in the background needed by social studies teachers. It is a book to read parts repeatedly to fit in the pieces of the jig-saw puzzle of the Balkans and all eastern Europe. It is not designed for high school students, although the best of them may profit by using it for specific reference.

Joseph S. Roucek of Hofstra College provides the preface and twelve of the thirty-two chapters. The associates include: Mitchell P. Briggs of Fresno State College, Floyd A. Cave of San Francisco State College, Kimon A. Doukas formerly of Indiana University, Wiktor J. Ehrenpreis formerly of "Poland Fights," Feliks Gross of New York University and University of Wyoming, E. C. Helmreich of Bowdoin College, T. V. Kalijarvi of New Hampshire State

Planning and Development Commission, Manfred Kridl of Smith College, Hans Kohn of Smith College, and Ernest Sture of Czechoslovak Information Service. The work has been well edited to avoid needless repetition. It also has a good index.

The first third of the book is devoted to the background from earliest times to about 1918. Much of this is new territory to the average history major. It would have helped if there were several maps showing in some detail the political arrangements at different periods. The balance of the book is devoted to developments country by country since 1918. Four chapters are under heads of "German Occupation," "Russian Occupation," "Governments in Exile," and "Economic Problems of Central-Eastern Europe." This chapter on economic problems by Ernest Sture gives a reasonable brief account of over-population, poor use of resources and suggestions to improve the situation.

The final chapter on "Russia Over Central-Eastern Europe," by Joseph S. Rousek gives the picture of Russian domination over this part of the world. The faults of Russia are certainly not ignored. In different places sharp comments in criticism of Germany appear. Throughout the book is seen the clashing interests of the Great Powers. It also shows the meeting of Eastern and Western world. While it is not expressed openly in words, the concern in these various chapters is the struggle and welfare of these different peoples. This is good objective writing by people who certainly know this part of the world. The book should be required reading for those who are hysterical over Russian plans for domination.

The general introductory chapter, "East-Central Europe in World Affairs," before the series of chapters giving the history up to 1918, is a real help. Also helpful is the chapter, "Central-Eastern Europe in International Relations, 1914-1945," coming before the chapters on recent developments. These are provided by E. C. Helmreich.

In the chapters on the different countries there is specific attention given to the peoples and cultures. There is also attention given to the economic conditions and resources. The economic interdependence is shown from different angles.

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Since two world wars were precipitated by incidents occurring in this region, it is well that students and government workers know more of these countries. This book is obviously the result of a tremendous amount of work and an effort to provide needed background. It builds up a sympathy for these various peoples and their problems. They have been victims of many aggressions and harsh treatment. There are many improvements that need to be made and it is a long hard road.

JULIA EMERY

Wichita High School East
Wichita, Kansas

Australia: The New Customer. By Howard Daniel and Minnie Belle. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1946. Pp. xiii, 369. \$4.50.

Here is a book written primarily for American businessmen interested in Australia as a market for goods or as a source of raw materials. However, the book has something to offer the student of the social sciences.

It is the first fifty pages of the book which seem of most value to the student. These deal with a brief treatment of the geographic setting of the country; historical beginnings; population density, distribution, and growth; politics; relation to the British Empire; wartime controls; psychology of the Australian people, with particular reference to business habits; and an analysis of the Australian standard of living.

The rest of the book, and by far the greatest part, is concerned with a discussion of foreign trade and analyses of specific occupational areas such as agriculture, communication, transportation, etc., with emphasis on the potentialities for American business relations. This discussion includes much statistical information of value to the business man but of limited interest to the student.

Despite the limited value of the book, the reader will discover many facts of interest. For example, the continent of Australia has fewer people than the city of New York; the policy of compulsory universal suffrage prevails, with a fine for failing to vote; no liquor is sold after 6 p.m.; there is a prejudice against tipping; one out of every seven workers belongs to a trade union; a minimum basic wage exists for all workers.

The large number of statistics makes this volume valuable as a reference or source book. Among educators, it is the teacher of economic geography who is most likely to find this book of value in his classroom teaching.

LEO LITZKY

Central High School
Newark, New Jersey

The Veteran and His Marriage. By John H. Mariano. New York: Council on Marriage Relations, Inc., 1945. \$2.75.

As the title indicates, this book attempts to discuss the problem of marriage in the light of the unique and extreme experiences of man as a soldier. Be it said at the outset that it does little to show the uniqueness of these experiences in their relation to the awesome problem of being wed to another person. By and large, it presents to the veteran an extensive and detailed catalogue of the errors of judgment under which his marriage can be entered into, or which can occur later at any time, and which may lead to conflict and divorce—errors to which any person is prone. If Mariano had confined himself to that aim, however modest, the book would have served a genuine purpose in the complex and wide field of what today is so horribly called "marital relations." But he defeats his purpose in trying to do too much, and on a false level.

The book ends with a chart describing the divorce laws in the forty-eight states. This end is the climax, as it were, of a long analysis of marriage inadequacies in terms of legal rights, obligations, complications and "grounds for divorce." Ironically enough, the author is fully aware that marriage is not mainly a sociological problem but, as he puts it, "an individual matter between two distinct personal entities." Having paid that much lip-service to the real question, he reverts to the sociological lingo and makes no more attempt to show specifically in what sense marriage is an individual matter than to counsel, in general terms, self-examination, greater awareness of the other person's needs, and to warn against hasty steps either in entering or breaking marriage.

The book should be welcomed as one of still too few attempts to show the meaninglessness of dealing with such a profoundly intimate thing as marriage in mere sociological terms, regardless of how often the author himself

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reverts to them. It should likewise be welcomed for its warning against the treacherous generalities of the social worker and the radio marriage magician, and for stressing the idea that "marriage invites a struggle to maintain it unimpaired."

Generalities need not be false because they are generalities, but to raise them from the level of the trite and bombastic requires specificity. In that the book fails. The question of what the struggle for the maintaining of marriage means and implies—a question that can only be answered in terms of true and false desires of man regardless of time and circumstance—the book does not try to answer. It links marriage with the problem of management and industrial relations, with the difficulties of the law and, of course, with the post-war world. By trying to do more it does less.

HERBERT SONTHOFF

Mount Holyoke College
South Hadley, Massachusetts

Career Opportunities. Edited by Mark Harris.
Washington, D. C.: Progress Press, 1946.
Pp. 354. \$3.25.

Career Opportunities comes at a time when counselors, vocational teachers, and guidance personnel are trying to help America meet the adjustments of post-war employment. During the war period many departments of government issued reams of material on occupational needs, requirements, and trends. This book has been compiled from much of their materials but it has been organized into workable form for schools, libraries, and personnel offices. Under such headings as Industry, Clerical, Agriculture, Engineering, Physical Sciences, Natural Sciences, Social Sciences, Modern Arts, Education, Religion, and miscellaneous vocational fields are discussed. Each unit is broken into areas such as "The Job of the Medical Technologist." A job analysis is done in each unit in order to answer the questions of qualifications, preparation, earnings, who should or should not become one, subjects to be taken, and related jobs.

The language of the book is simple and direct. Its arrangement is excellent and it should help answer many questions for boys

and girls, veterans, and counselors. It is current and the job titles are those of the present employment market. Every secondary school will find this book an asset.

ELMER A. LISSFELT

Abington Township Schools
Abington, Pennsylvania

Psychology of Adolescence. By Karl G. Garrison. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946. Third Edition. Illustrated. Pp. xv, 355. \$4.65.

In this new edition, the author has added new material concerning the needs of adolescents, the development of attitudes, heterosexuality, and youth problems today and tomorrow.

The aim of this book is twofold: first to provide for students information about personality problems, and second to introduce the student to basic experimental studies.

Abundantly documented with footnotes, each chapter concludes with a summary, about half a dozen questions or "thought problems" and a list of selected references. Where educational films are available to supplement the text, the reader is supplied with the name and address of the distributing organization.

The volume concludes with three appendices. The first is a selected, annotated reference bibliography for the serious student. The second is an annotated bibliography designed for the popular reader. The third is the Vineland Social Maturity Scale.

This interesting and well-written book is equipped with a subject and an author index.

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

History of the United States. Vol. II. By Asa Earl Martin. Boston: Ginn and Company. 1946. Enlarged Edition. Pp. xiii, 948. \$4.50.

Intended as a text for undergraduate college students, this enlarged edition has been brought up to date by the addition of three new chapters "Embroylment in the Second World War," "The Second World War," and "Post War Adjustment."

The book employs a combined chronological and topical method. Its only illustrations are maps. The text is equipped with an index, a general bibliography and chapter bibliographies. The latter contain a list of secondary

works from which the author obtained most of his material.

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

P E R T I N E N T P A M P H L E T S

Edited By R. T. SOLIS-COHEN
Philadelphia, Pa.

Report on the Cultural Missions of Mexico. By Guillermo Bonilla y Segura. Bulletin 1945. No. 11. Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1945. Pp. x, 61. 15 cents.

The cultural missions teach isolated Mexican Indians to prepare for modern life. Thus the mission's purpose is secular. It seeks to reconstruct the social institutions and living habits of the rural people. For example, the chief of the missions—among his many other duties—organizes cooperative associations for the production of livestock, agricultural and industrial goods, and consumer cooperative groups to distribute basic essentials. The social worker encourages the achievement of absolute cleanliness in the home, the use of furniture, and the making of apparel and household linens. The nurse teaches the people to avoid contracting disease from contaminated water. She also provides public health instruction.

The teacher of agriculture helps the farmers to obtain the best results from their work by giving them essential information concerning agricultural problems. The construction teachers instruct in masonry, in the construction of home and, with the cooperation of communities, they construct bridges, aqueducts, sewers, etc. In addition there are teachers of trades and industries, teachers of mechanics, an operator of a motion picture projector, a music teacher, and a leader of recreational activities.

The report describes the objectives, program, and achievements of the Cultural Missions and concludes with a bibliography of publications in English and in Spanish.

Preserving the Design for Americans. Williamsburg, Va.: Colonial Williamsburg. No date. Pp. 23.

The restoration of the historic city of Williamsburg to its eighteenth century appearance, in the words of its protagonists, "is helping to

keep Americans 'Americans.' " A project is proposed to eliminate automobiles from the restored area and to utilize only eighteenth century modes of transportation.

The officials of Colonial Williamsburg expect to expand hotel facilities to care for additional guests and to insure suitable landing fields for those who may prefer to travel by plane.

Picture Stories from American History. Part One: The Period of Discovery and Exploration. Part Two: The Period of Colonization and Independence. New York: School Department Educational Comics, Inc., 1946. \$1.00 per dozen.

The three samples dealing with Marquette and Joliet, the French and Indian War, and the Story of Benjamin Franklin look like the comics in the Sunday supplement of newspapers but lack their simplicity. However, these sample educational comics could be improved by limiting each picture to one new idea and showing more pictures.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Democratic Human Relations: Promising Practices in Intergroup and Intercultural Education in the Social Studies. Sixteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Edited by Hilda Taba and William Van Til. Washington, D. C.: The National Council for the Social Studies, 1945. Pp. xv, 366. Paper, \$2.00; Cloth, \$2.30.

A study to aid schools in reducing racial, religious, social, economic, and political tensions.

Problems of Men. By John Dewey. New York: Philosophical Library, 1946. Pp. 424. \$5.00.

Reprints of essays from periodicals, most of them recently written.

A History of Education. By James Mulhern. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1946. Pp. xii, 647. \$4.50.

A college textbook.

Families in Trouble. By Earl Lomon Koos. New York: King's Crown Press, 1946. Pp. 134. \$2.25.

A case study of a group of low-income urban families.

Living in Our Communities: Civics for Young

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Citizens. By Edward Krug and I. James Quillen. New York: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1946. Pp. 612. Illustrated. \$2.64.

A civics text for the ninth grade.

Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools. By Edgar Bruce Wesley. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1946. Pp. xiv, 362. \$2.75.

A synthesis of the materials of teaching social studies in the elementary schools.

Recreation and the Total Personality. By S. R. Slavson. New York: Association Press, 1946. Pp. x, 205. \$3.00.

An analysis of goals and methods for enriching recreation's contribution to wholesome living.

Twentieth Century Education. Edited by P. F. Valentine. New York: Philosophical Library, 1946. Pp. 654, ix. \$7.50.

A symposium, giving an over-all view of the major issues and problems in contemporary education.

The Control of Venereal Disease. By R. A. Vonderlehr and J. R. Heller, Jr. New

- York: Reynal and Hitchcock, 1946. Pp. vii, 245. \$2.75.
A factual report on this major health problem.
- Thomas Jefferson*. By Frank and Cortelle Hutchins. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1946. Pp. 279.
A biography for young people.
- Home Room Guidance*. By Harry C. McKown. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1946. Pp. ix, 521. \$3.50.
A revised edition.
- Atlas of World Affairs*. By Clifford H. MacFadden, Henry Madison Kendall, and George F. Deasy. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1946. Pp. 179. \$2.75 text edition.
Maps and text to explain present day problems.
- The American Continents*. By Harlan H. Barrows, Edith Putnam Parker, and Clarence Woodrow Sorenson. New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1946. Pp. 314. Illustrated. \$2.00.
The second of a series of three textbooks designed for a unified course in elementary geography.
- Psychology of Adolescence*. By Karl G. Garrison. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946. Illustrated. Pp. xv, 355. \$4.65.
Third edition of an important and well-written book.
- History of the United States*. Vol. II. By Asa Earl Martin. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1946. Pp. xiii, 948. \$4.50.
A new and enlarged edition of a college text.
- Our Big World*. By Harlan H. Barrows, Edith Putnam Parker, and Clarence Woodrow Sorenson. New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1946. Pp. 186. Illustrated. \$1.44.
Designed for a unified course in elementary geography.
- Georgia Facts in Figures: a Source Book*. By the Citizens' Fact-Finding Movement of Georgia. Athens, Georgia: The University of Georgia Press, 1946. Pp. xviii, 179. Paperbound, \$2.00.
Basic information about Georgia for schools, business organizations, and civic groups.
- Arabian Nights*. Collected and edited by Andrew Lang. Illustrated by Vera Bock.
- New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1946. Pp. 303. \$2.00.
A new edition with an attractive format.
- A History of Europe from the Reformation to the Present Day*. By Ferdinand Schevill. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1946. Pp. xii, 937. \$4.75.
Announced as a "New and Revised Edition."
The 21st Century Looks Back. By Emanuel Posnack. New York: The William-Frederick Press, 1946. Pp. 241. \$2.75.
An analysis of the present capitalistic order to find answers to twentieth century problems.
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VOLUME XXXVII, NUMBER 8

Continuing The Historical Outlook

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Contents

History: Science or Art?	Margaret C. McCulloch	339
Man's Rise Toward Freedom: A Social Studies Unit	Flora M. Staple	343
A Stark Outline of Famine	Evelyn Aronson	349
The Basic Weakness of National Socialism	Frederick Mayer	352
Dutch Wealth and English Envy	Carl B. Cone	355
A Teacher Gives a Visual-Aids Suggestion	C. Wade Cudeback	361
The Inventions of the Cotton Industry—Need or Ingenuity?	Jeanne Rouen	362
Social Studies in Japan	Albert R. Brinkman	365
Unit Outline on Problems of International Organization and World Peace	Frances Norene Ahl	367
News and Comment	Leonard B. Irwin	371
Book Reviews and Book Notes	Ira Kreider	375
Current Publications Received		380
Index to Volume XXXVII		381

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EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 809-811 North 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pa.
Subscription \$2.00 a year, single numbers 30 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to May inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 North 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

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